

PHILADELPHIA SOCIETY
FOR
ORGANIZING CHARITY,

PROCEEDINGS

OF THE

SIXTH ANNUAL

CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES,

HELD AT CHICAGO, JUNE, 1879.

EDITED BY

F. B. SANBORN,

SECRETARY OF THE AMERICAN SOCIAL SCIENCE ASSOCIATION.

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F. H. WINES SPRINGFIELD, ILL.
A. G. BYERS COLUMBUS, O.
F. B. SANBORN CONCORD, MASS.

P R E F A C E.

THE Sixth Annual Conference of Charities — an organization consisting of delegates from States, representatives of municipal, local, and private charities, and members of the American Social Science Association, interested in charitable work — met, in 1879, at Chicago, apart from the above-named Association. The place of meeting had been previously determined, ever since the Conference first organized in 1874 at New York, by the fact that the Social Science Association was to hold its General Meeting at the same place and time. The several Conferences have met, therefore, at New York in May, 1874 ; at Detroit in May, 1875 ; at Saratoga twice, in September, 1876 and 1877 ; and in May, 1878, at Cincinnati. By virtue of the authority given by the Conference of 1878, the meeting for 1879 was called at Chicago, and the next year's Conference is called at Cleveland. As it is not probable that the Social Science Association will meet at the same time and place, the next sessions of the Conference will naturally be held by themselves ; and this will generally be the practice in future years, no doubt.

The Chicago Conference was the most important of these gatherings that have been held. Not only were the various State Boards of Charities represented, but a considerable number of States having no such boards were represented by delegates appointed by their respective Governors. Officials from a large number of Institutions and Charity Organization Societies of cities were in attendance, as were also the Governors of the States of Ohio, Wisconsin, and Illinois. Valuable papers were read, and the subjects of Insanity, Pauperism, and Crime were discussed with reference to the application of preventive measures. The next census, and its importance as bearing upon these subjects, were discussed, and practical suggestions considered as to the kind of information most needed. Gen. Walker, the Superintendent of the Census, was present, for the express purpose, as he stated, of consultation and counsel in regard to the best means of gathering statistics. It was decided that in the future the scope of the Conference should be enlarged so as to embrace prison management, and bring the officers engaged in that work more

fully into accord with the organization, which is hereafter to be known as the Conference of Charities and Correction.

The next meeting will be held in June, 1880, and preparations are already making for a large and notable gathering. In August, Gen. R. Brinkerhoff, the President of the Conference of 1880, met by previous appointment at Glen Iris, near Portage, Dr. Charles S. Hoyt, Chairman of the Conference Secretaries, Hon. William P. Letchworth, President of the New York State Board of Charities, Dr. A. G. Byers, Secretary of the Ohio State Board, and others, with the purpose of perfecting plans for the next meeting. Gen Brinkerhoff and Dr Byers had just returned from a consultation with Mr. F. B. Sanborn of Boston, the Acting Secretary of the American Social Science Association, and others in New England, Canada, and elsewhere, who are interested in the work of the Conference. The result has been a more systematic action than ever before to promote this work.

The Seventh Annual Conference, as announced above, will be held at Cleveland, commencing Tuesday evening, June 1, 1880, and will be continued Wednesday, Thursday, and Friday. It is expected that the Tuesday evening proceedings will be opened with an address of welcome by the Governor of Ohio, and will be closed with a review of the work of the year by the retiring President, Gen. Brinkerhoff of Ohio.

Some idea of the character and scope of the discussions to follow during the three succeeding days may be formed from a perusal of the Reports and Papers in this volume. The debates of 1880 will be reported by a stenographer (which was not done at Chicago), and thus a very important part of the Proceedings will be preserved. The names of the Standing Committees who have in charge comprehensive reports and special papers upon the topics submitted to their consideration will be found on page 143-4 of this volume.

Members of Boards of State Charities and Prison Commissions are *ex officio* members of the Conference, and so also are all persons officially connected with the management of charitable, reformatory, or penal institutions. In addition, all persons interested in such institutions are cordially invited to be present. It has been customary heretofore for Governors of States to appoint such representatives as they specially desire to have in attendance, and it is expected that next year every State will have such representation. It is expected, also, that the Dominion of Canada will be fully represented.

The Papers and Reports prepared for the Chicago Conference are here printed in full, except a few not received in time. The order of printing is not the same as that of reading in all cases, and of the discussion only abstracts could be given. Copies of these Conference Proceedings may be ordered of any member of the Publication Committee, and particularly of F. B. Sanborn, Secretary of the American Social Science Association, Concord, Mass. A copy will be sent to each member of that

Association, and will take the place of a number of the "Journal of Social Science," the publication of which has been unavoidably delayed until December, 1879. No copies remain of the Proceedings of the Conference of 1876 or 1877. The price of the Proceedings of the Conference of 1879 is, for single copies, \$1; ten copies, \$7.50; 25 copies, \$12; 50 copies, \$20; and any greater number at that rate.

NOTE.—The statistics of Reformatories in Mrs. Wardner's Paper were collected in various years from 1875 to 1879, and are not uniform. More recent and exact statistics concerning American Reformatories will appear in the report of the National Bureau of Education for 1878, now in press. The subject of both European and American Reformatories will also be treated fully in the great work of Dr. E. C. Wines, now in press, on Reformatory, Penal, and Preventive Institutions.

In Gen. Brinkerhoff's Paper, page 111, by a mistake in "Plan No. 3," the hospitals are brought back so far as to close the entrance to the hall in the main building. They should come only to the centre of the hall (which is eight feet wide), so as to give room for an outside door as an exit from the hall, and also a door from the hall to the hospital. On the same page, line 11 from bottom, for "a rear building" read "*this* rear building."

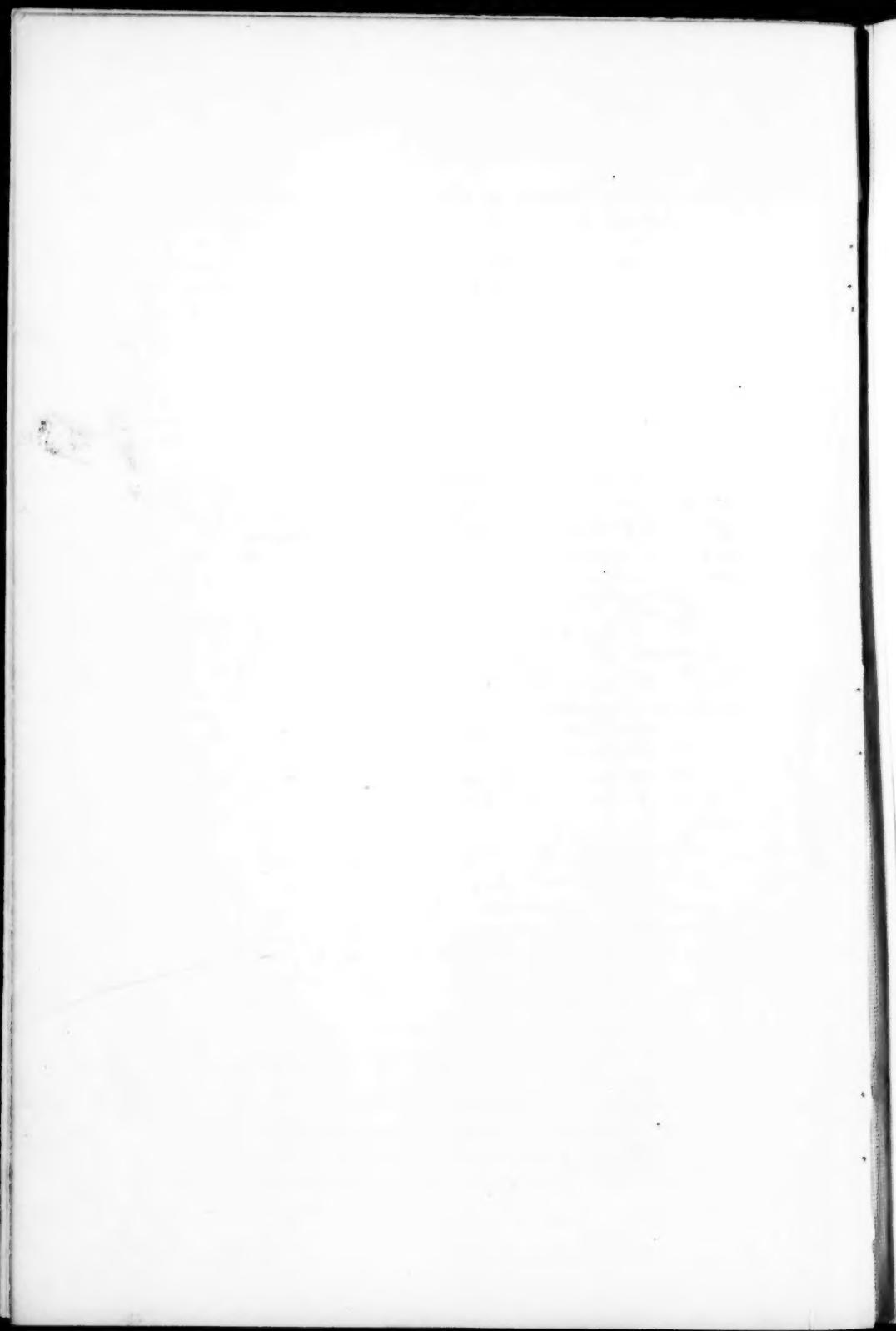


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PROCEEDINGS
OF THE
SIXTH ANNUAL CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES,
HELD AT CHICAGO, JUNE 10-12, 1879.

OPENING SESSION.

THE Sixth Annual Conference of Charities convened in the Ladies' Ordinary of the Grand Pacific Hotel at Chicago, Tuesday, June 10, 1879, and was called to order at ten A.M. by the President, Hon. G. S. Robinson of Illinois, President of the Board of State Charities for that State, who made the following address, opening the sessions:—

Ladies and Gentlemen.—This is the sixth annual meeting of the Conference of Charities. Hitherto its sessions have been held in connection with the American Social Science Association; but to-day, for the first time, it assembles as a separate and independent organization. I regret that on this occasion we shall be deprived of the presence and counsel of several able and distinguished gentlemen of that Association, who have been accustomed to meet with us; but can assure you that, although absent in person, yet in feeling, in sympathy, and in hope for our success, they are with us. I feel confident, however, that those who are present have come here with a determination to do their whole duty in the great work not only engaging our attention, but the attention of thousands of other philanthropic men and women throughout the land, and that our deliberations will result in more active, united, efficient efforts to mitigate the sufferings of humanity. The work in which we are engaged, the subjects we have met to discuss, the plans to be carried out, and the results we hope to accomplish, should command the attention of every good citizen.

The administration of our public charities is a subject of vital importance to our people, viewed not only from a humanitarian, but from a financial standpoint as well; an imperative duty, from which we cannot shrink if we would, and would not if we could. How to administer them successfully, wisely, and economically, is a problem not easily solved. How to alleviate the sufferings of our unfortunate classes, to support and maintain them in a proper manner without overburdening our people, thereby causing a reaction in public sentiment detrimental to the wards of the state and the nation; how to attain the best practical results in dealing with the evils of pauperism, crime, and insanity; and especially how to lessen the number of their victims,—are questions of paramount importance, which should challenge our earnest and serious consideration.

It affords me great pleasure to meet so many distinguished ladies and gentlemen from this and other States engaged in the beneficent work of ameliorating the condition of the unfortunate, of devising the best and most economical means for that purpose; to meet you here in this beautiful city of Chicago, this great commercial and manufacturing metropolis of the West, situated upon the western shore of Lake Michigan, in one of the richest and best States of this Union, in the heart of the best country on the globe; the industry, enterprise, intelligence, and charity of whose citizens are unsurpassed, and whose hospitality has not only become proverbial but wide-spread as the nation itself. It is to such a city and such a people I feel authorized to extend to each and all of you a cordial and hearty welcome.

Mr. Henry W. Lord of Michigan moved, and it was voted, that Mr. F. B. Sanborn of Massachusetts, Rev. A. G. Byers of Ohio, and Rev. J. L. Milligan of Pennsylvania, act as Secretaries until a permanent organization is effected, and that the President appoint a Committee, consisting of one person from each State represented, to arrange business and nominate permanent officers for the Conference. The following Committee was then appointed: Henry W. Lord, Michigan, *Chairman*; Dr. Pliny Earle, Massachusetts; W. P. Letchworth, New York; R. D. McGonnigle, Pennsylvania; Dr. J. C. Corbus, Illinois; M. D. Follett, Ohio; C. S. Watkins, Iowa; Thomas T. Taylor, Kansas; John P. Early, Indiana; A. E. Elmore, Wisconsin.

Mr. S. S. Richie of Ohio moved that the Secretaries act as a Committee on credentials of delegates, which was agreed to.

The Secretaries reported as follows on the official boards existing in the United States, and the representation of these boards and other organizations in the Chicago Conference:—

There are at present in the United States nine State boards or commissions charged with the general oversight of charitable work in the States where they exist. These boards, named in the order of seniority, are,—

1. The Massachusetts Board of State Charities, established in 1863; consolidated with the State Board of Health in 1879.
2. The New York State Board of Charities, established in 1867.
3. The Ohio Board of State Charities, established in 1867; re-organized in 1876.
4. The Rhode Island Board of State Charities and Corrections, established in 1869.
5. The Pennsylvania Board of Commissioners of Public Charities, established in 1869.
6. The Illinois Board of State Commissioners of Public Charities, established in 1869.
7. The Wisconsin State Board of Charities and Reform, established in 1871.
8. The Michigan State Board of Corrections and Charities, established in 1871.
9. The Kansas State Board of Charities, established in 1875.

A special organization has existed as a State board in New York since 1847,—the Commissioners of Emigration. There is also a State Prison Commission in Massachusetts, and in Connecticut.

The present officers and members of the State boards are as follows:—

MASSACHUSETTS. (Board of Health, Lunacy, and Charities. Term of Office, Five Years.)

Moses Kimball, Boston, *Chairman*; Henry L. Bowditch, M.D., Boston; Nathan Allen, M.D., Lowell; Charles F. Donnelly, Boston; Edward Hitchcock, M.D., Amherst; Albert Wood, M.D., Worcester; Robert T. Davis, M.D., Fall River; John C. Hoadley, Lawrence; Ezra Parmenter, M.D., Cambridge. [Dr. C. F. Folsom, Boston, *Secretary*; Dr. H. B. Wheelwright, Newburyport, *Superintendent of Out-door Poor*; S. C. Wrightington, Fall River, *Superintendent of In-door Poor*; F. B. Sanborn, Concord, *Inspector of Charities*.] These four officers are not members of the Board.]

NEW YORK. (Term of Office, Eight Years.)

William P. Letchworth, Buffalo, *President*; John C. Devereux, Utica, *Vice-President*; Mrs. C. R. Lowell, No. 120 East Thirtieth Street, New York; Theodore B. Bronson, No. 20 West Twentieth Street, New York; Edward C. Donnelly, Manhattanville, New York; Ripley Ropes, No. 40 Pierrepont Street, Brooklyn; J. H. Van Antwerp, Albany; James Roosevelt, Hyde Park; Samuel F. Miller, Franklin, Delaware County; Edward

SIXTH ANNUAL CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES.

W. Foster, Potsdam, St. Lawrence County; **Martin B. Anderson**, Rochester. *Ex-officio* members: The Lieutenant-Governor, Secretary of State, Comptroller, and Attorney-General. **Dr. Charles S. Hoyt**, Albany, *Secretary*; **James O. Fanning**, Albany, *Assistant Secretary*.

OHIO. (Term of Office, Three Years.)

R. M. Bishop, Governor, *President, ex-officio*; **John W. Andrews**, Columbus; **R. Brinkerhoff**, Mansfield; **Joseph Perkins**, Cleveland; **Carl Boesel**, New Bremen; **M. D. Carrington**, Toledo; **Rev. A. G. Byers**, *Secretary*, Columbus.

RHODE ISLAND. (Term of Office, Six Years.)

George I. Chace, Providence, *Chairman*; **William W. Chapin**, Providence, *Secretary*; **James M. Pendleton**, Westerly; **Thomas Coggshall**, Newport; **William H. Hopkins**, Providence; **Job Kenyon**, Providence; **Lewis B. Smith**, Nayatt Point; **Alfred B. Chadsey**, Wickford; **Stephen R. Weeden**, Providence.

PENNSYLVANIA. (Term of Office, Five Years.)

Mahlon H. Dickinson, Philadelphia, *President*; **Heister Clymer**, Reading; **William Bakewell**, Pittsburg; **A. C. N. Noyes**, Westport County; **George Bullock**, Conshohocken, Montgomery County; **Thomas Beaver**, Danville, Montour County; **James A. Biddle**, Philadelphia; **Diller Luther**, M.D., Reading, *Secretary*.

ILLINOIS. (Term of Office, Five Years.)

G. S. Robinson, Sycamore, *President*; **J. C. Corbus**, Mendota; **J. M. Gould**, Moline; **J. N. McCord**, Vandalia; **W. A. Grimshaw**, Pittsfield; **Rev. Fred. H. Wines**, Springfield, *Secretary*.

WISCONSIN. (Term of Office, Five Years.)

Andrew E. Elmore, Fort Howard, *President*; **William W. Reed**, M.D., Jefferson, *Vice-President*; **Hiram H. Giles**, Madison; **J. H. Vivian**, M.D., Mineral Point; **Charles H. Haskins**, Milwaukee; **Theodore D. Kanouse**, Watertown, *Secretary*.

MICHIGAN. (Term of Office, Six Years.)

Charles I. Walker, Detroit, *Chairman*; **Charles M. Croswell**, Governor, *ex-officio* member, Adrian; **M. S. Crosby**, Grand Rapids; **Rt. Rev. George D. Gillespie**, Grand Rapids; **E. H. Van Deusen**, M.D., Kalamazoo; **Henry W. Lord**, Detroit, *Secretary*.

KANSAS. (Term of Office, Years.)

Edwin Knowles, Sabetha, *Chairman*; **C. E. Faulkner**, Salina, *Secretary*; **A. T. Sharpe**, Ottawa, *Treasurer*; **J. L. Wever**, M.D., Leavenworth; **Gen. T. T. Taylor**, Hutchinson.

[The Massachusetts Prison Commission, as re-organized in 1879, consists of five members, who hold office for five years: its Secretary is not a member of the Board. The present members are: **Thomas Parsons**, Brookline, *Chairman*; **Charles O. Chapin**, Springfield; **William Roberts**, Waltham; **Mrs. Mary C. Ware**, Boston; **Mrs. A. C. Johnson**, Boston; **William F. Spaulding**, *Secretary*.

A Prison Commission, somewhat similar in power, was established in Connecticut in 1879, but the State Board of Charities there has ceased to act.]

The following delegates were reported as present:—

CONNECTICUT.

Gen. F. A. Walker, New Haven, Superintendent of the United-States Census.

MASSACHUSETTS.

William F. Spaulding, Secretary of the Board of Commissioners of Prisons, Boston.

Pliny Earle, M.D., Superintendent of State Lunatic Hospital, Northampton.
Elizur Wright, Boston.

NEW YORK.

William P. Letchworth, President of State Board of Charities, Buffalo.

Charles S. Hoyt, M.D., Secretary of State Board of Charities, Albany.

H. B. Wilbur, M.D., Superintendent of New York Asylum for Idiots, Syracuse.

Seth Low, Brooklyn Bureau of Charities, Brooklyn.

Joseph P. Noyes, Susquehanna Valley Home for Indigent Children, Binghamton.

J. W. Skinner, Superintendent of Industrial Schools of Children's Aid Society, New York.

Walter B. Wines, Irvington-on-Hudson.

PENNSYLVANIA.

Diller Luther, M.D., Secretary of the State Board of Public Charities, Reading.

Rev. John L. Milligan, Chaplain Western Penitentiary, Allegheny.

Robert D. McGonnigle, Clerk of Directors of the Poor, Allegheny.

Mrs. McGonnigle.

Charles D. Cadwailader, Society for Organizing Charitable Relief and Supporting Mendicancy, Philadelphia.

Rudolph Blankenberg (same society), Philadelphia.

OHIO.

Richard M. Bishop, Governor of Ohio, Columbus.

Mrs. Bishop, Columbus.

Miss Anna Bishop, Columbus.

Gen. R. Brinkerhoff, Commissioner of State Charities, Mansfield.

Rev. A. G. Byers, Secretary of Board of State Charities, Columbus.

S. S. Richie, New Paris, Preble County.

W. S. Dickinson, Cincinnati.

Mrs. Dickinson, Cincinnati.

Mrs. George A. Baker, Cleveland, Visitor to Girls' Industrial Home.

M. D. Follett, Marietta.

6 SIXTH ANNUAL CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES.

INDIANA.

John P. Early, official delegate, Indianapolis.
Mrs. N. J. Hicks, Indianapolis.
Mrs. N. G. Roberts, Social Science Association, Indianapolis.
Mrs. H. M. Gougar, Social Science Association, La Fayette.

MICHIGAN.

Rt. Rev. George D. Gillespie, State Board of Charities and Correction,
Grand Rapids.
E. H. Van Deusen, M.D., State Board of Charities and Correction, Kala-
mazoo.
Henry W. Lord, Secretary of State Board of Charities and Correction,
Detroit.

WISCONSIN.

William E. Smith, Governor of Wisconsin, Madison.
Mrs. Smith, Madison.
Andrew E. Elmore, President of State Board of Charities and Reform, Fort
Howard.
H. H. Giles, member of State Board of Charities and Reform, Madison.
John H. Vivian, M.D., member of State Board of Charities and Reform,
Mineral Point.
W. W. Reed, M.D., member of State Board of Charities and Reform, Jef-
ferson.
Theo. D. Kanouse, Secretary of State Board of Charities and Reform,
Watertown.
Rev. W. H. DeMotte, Superintendent of Institution for Deaf and Dumb,
Delavan.
Mrs. Sarah F. C. Little, Superintendent of Institution for Blind, Janesville.
Rev. A. L. Chapin, D.D., LL.D., President Beloit College, Beloit.
Miss Ella A. Giles, Madison.
Mrs. W. P. Lynde, Industrial School, Milwaukee.
Mrs. John Hiles, Home of the Friendless, Milwaukee.
Mrs. Marion V. Dudley, Lake Mills.
Mrs. John Tapley, Taylor Orphan Asylum, Racine.
M. B. Erskine, Taylor Orphan Asylum, Racine.
Mrs. S. S. Sherman, Protestant Orphans' Association, Milwaukee.
Mrs. Emma Bascom, Madison.
Rev. E. Tasker, Chaplain State Prison, Waupun.
Rev. A. D. Hendrickson, Janesville.
Anson Rogers, Janesville.
William C. Allen, Racine.
Mrs. Allen, Racine.
Dominick Hunt, Superintendent of the Poor, Fort Howard.
O. W. Wight, M.D., Milwaukee.
James H. Foster, Railroad Commissioner, Koro.

IOWA.

C. S. Watkins, official delegate, Davenport.
S. W. Pierce, Superintendent of Iowa Orphans' Home, Davenport.
A. Reynolds, M.D., Superintendent Hospital for the Insane, Independence.
Miss M. A. Cleaves, M.D., Trustee Hospital for the Insane, Mt. Pleasant.

REPORT OF BUSINESS COMMITTEE.

7

KANSAS.

Thomas T. Taylor, State Board of Charities, Hutchinson.
C. A. Hayes, M.D., Asst. Physician Hospital for the Insane, Osawatomie.

KENTUCKY.

R. C. Thomas, M.D., official delegate, member of State Board of Health.

ILLINOIS.

Shelby M. Cullom, Governor of Illinois, Springfield.
E. F. Leonard, Private Secretary of the Governor, Springfield.
Lieut.-Gov. Andrew Shuman, Chicago.
George S. Robinson, President of State Board of Public Charities, Sycamore.
Mrs. Robinson, Sycamore.
J. C. Corbus, M.D., State Board of Public Charities, Mendota.
Rev. Fred. H. Wines, Secretary of State Board of Public Charities, Springfield.
Mrs. Wines, Springfield.
John W. Whipp, Assistant Secretary of State Board of Public Charities, Springfield.
R. W. McClaughry, Warden State Penitentiary, Joliet.
J. C. Salter, Warden Southern Penitentiary, Chester.
E. A. Kilbourne, M.D., Superintendent of Northern Insane Hospital, Elgin.
H. F. Carriel, M.D., Superintendent of Central Insane Hospital, Jacksonville.
Horace Wardner, M.D., Superintendent of Southern Insane Hospital, Anna.
J. D. Scouller, M.D., Superintendent of State Reform School, Pontiac.
George Davenport, Superintendent of Illinois Charitable Eye and Ear Infirmary, Chicago.
C. W. Marsh, Trustee Northern Insane Hospital, Sycamore.
I. C. Bosworth, Trustee Northern Insane Hospital, Elgin.
D. E. Beaty, Trustee Central Insane Hospital, Jerseyville.
John E. Qetrich, Trustee Southern Insane Hospital, Sparta.
E. H. Finch, Trustee Southern Insane Hospital, Anna.
W. P. Bruner, Trustee Southern Insane Hospital, Metropolis.
John H. Clough, Trustee Eastern Insane Hospital, Chicago.
William Reddick, Trustee Eastern Insane Hospital, Ottawa.
William F. Murphy, Trustee Eastern Insane Hospital, Newman.
M. A. Cushing, Trustee Institution for Deaf and Dumb, Minonk.
Daniel Goodwin, jun., Trustee Illinois Eye and Ear Infirmary, Chicago.
W. H. Fitch, M.D., Trustee Illinois Eye and Ear Infirmary, Rockford.
Perry A. Armstrong, Trustee Illinois Eye and Ear Infirmary, Morris.
E. C. Lawton, Clerk of Illinois Eye and Ear Infirmary, Chicago.
W. L. Culver, Treasurer of Illinois Eye and Ear Infirmary, Chicago.
Obadiah Huse, Trustee State Reform School, Evanston.
Solon Kendall, Trustee State Reform School, Geneseo.
J. F. Culver, Trustee State Reform School, Pontiac.
R. D. Lawrence, Commissioner of Southern Penitentiary, Springfield.
R. J. Patterson, M.D., Superintendent Bellevue Place, Batavia.
Henry J. Brooks, M.D., formerly Assistant Physician Northern Insane Hospital, Dixon.

Rev. W. D. A. Matthews, Superintendent of Prison Department of the Western Seaman's Friend Society, Onarga.

Mrs. John L. Beveridge, Industrial School for Girls, Evanston.

Mrs. Louisa R. Wardner, Industrial School for Girls, Anna.

Mrs. Laura J. Tisdale, Industrial School for Girls, Chicago.

CHICAGO.

H. C. Senne, Chairman of the Board of County Commissioners.

George W. Spofford, County Commissioner, Chairman Committee on Public Charities.

P. McGrath, County Agent.

D. W. Mills, Warden Cook County Hospital.

E. B. McCagg, President of Relief and Aid Society.

Rev. George C. Truesdell, Superintendent Relief and Aid Society.

D. Wilkins, Superintendent Washingtonian Home.

Charles W. Earle, M.D., Physician Washingtonian Home.

Samuel Willard, M.D., Director Washingtonian Home.

D. R. Brower, M.D.

Viola E. Archibald, M.D., Illinois Social Science Association.

Sibelia F. Baker, M.D., Illinois Social Science Association.

Mrs. Samuel Willard, Illinois Social Science Association.

Mrs. J. Tyler, Woman's Christian Association.

Mrs. J. A. Thompson, Woman's Christian Association.

Mrs. Thomas Burrows, Woman's Exchange.

Mrs. William Penn Nixon, Woman's Exchange.

Mrs. N. B. Buford, Woman's Exchange.

Mrs. A. H. Hoge, Home for the Friendless.

Mrs. Thomas A. Hill, Home for the Friendless.

Col. C. G. Hammond, Home for the Friendless.

Mrs. Henry Sayers, Protestant Orphan Asylum.

Mrs. L. L. Collins, Protestant Orphan Asylum.

Mrs. R. H. Forrester, Woman's Hospital.

Mrs. J. Clement, Woman's Hospital.

Mrs. A. Peterson, Woman's Hospital.

Mrs. F. D. Patterson, Woman's Hospital.

G. S. Randall, Architect.

Rev. R. W. Patterson, D.D., Theological Seminary of the North-West.

Rev. Clinton Locke, D.D., President St. Luke's Hospital.

J. S. Jewell, M.D.

H. M. Bannister, M.D.

E. L. Holmes, M.D., Eye and Ear Infirmary.

S. J. Jones, M.D., Eye and Ear Infirmary.

Gov. John L. Beveridge, Evanston.

E. Ingalls, M.D., President State Medical Society.

James R. Willett, Architect.

J. O. Cochrane, Architect.

A. G. Lane, County Superintendent Schools.

Mrs. J. McGregor Adams.

In the absence of the Governor of Illinois, the Lieutenant-Governor, Hon. Andrew Shuman, spoke briefly as follows:—

“*Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen,* — When the Governor is out of the State, the Lieutenant-Governor is required to act as his official substitute. The Governor is out of the State to-day; and, although I will not presume to act as his substitute on this occasion as a speech-maker, I can nevertheless appear before you as his apologist. When Gov. Cullom left for Washington, a week ago, it was his intention to return in time to be present with you, and to take part in your deliberations. There must be a very good reason for his failure to carry out his intention, or he certainly would have been here as he had promised. He is noted for the scrupulous fidelity with which he fulfills his engagements.

“Ladies and gentlemen, there is no greater or better work in all this world than that in which you are engaged as the managers, agents, and ministers of the public and private charities of the country. The question of the repression and control of crime, pauperism, and the ills incident to human misfortune, is one of those partially-solved great problems of the ages, which still challenges the best thought and effort of the world’s science, philanthropy, and statesmanship. The question as to what extent and by what methods the State should or can care for its unfortunates, and the question of how individual benevolence and organized private charity can most judiciously and effectively relieve the distressed, and help the needy, appeal to the soberest reason as well as to the tenderest heart. As I understand it, the object of this meeting is to confer about questions of this character. I can but express the hope that the results of your conference and deliberations may be in the highest degree edifying and gratifying to yourselves, profitable to the general public, and greatly promotive of the interests of our common humanity.

“Ladies and gentlemen, if Gov. Cullom were here, he would, as I do, extend to you, in behalf of our people, the most cordial greeting, and the warmest welcome to our state and city.”

Gov. Bishop, of Ohio, responded on behalf of the delegates from other States. He said it was personally very gratifying to be present on this occasion, for he took a deep interest in a subject so vital to the welfare of our common country. He had the pleasure, one year ago, to welcome many who were now present to

the State of Ohio, of which he had the honor then as now to be the chief executive. He was glad to meet again those who were last year at Cincinnati. This was, in his opinion, one of the best possible causes in which men and women could be engaged. If he could do any thing to forward this cause, he would gladly do it.

Bishop Gillespie, of Michigan, said he did not know why he should be called on to speak, when there were so many present who had studied the subject, and had a wider acquaintance with it than he. He had sometimes visited the poor and those in prison, and had become much interested in these people. It was the habit of some people to think that the bars should be made stronger to keep criminals in, and that the poor were troublesome, and the quicker they were out of the way the better for society. There were others who believed that reformatory measures should be instituted. He believed it was one of vital interest to society, and one which should command the attention of all thoughtful men.

REPORTS FROM THE STATES REPRESENTED.

Nine of the States represented in the Conference then made reports on the charitable work therein, as follows: Michigan by Mr. Lord, Wisconsin by Mr. Elmore, Illinois by Mr. Robinson, Kansas by Gen. Taylor, Indiana by Mr. Early, Pennsylvania by Mr. Milligan, New York by Mr. Letchworth and Dr. Hoyt, Massachusetts by Mr. Spaulding, and Ohio by Dr. Byers and Gen. Brinkerhoff. These reports, some of them since revised by their authors, are the following:—

MICHIGAN.—BY MR. LORD.

Mr. Chairman, Ladies and Gentlemen,— Since the last Conference, Michigan has kept along with her work: no change in policy has occurred, and some new institutions have been provided for. Our new Asylum for the Insane was opened in July, 1878, at Pontiac, and is, in point of architectural beauty combined with economy of structure, almost a model institution. We now have provision for one thousand insane patients, and have, including epileptics, about eighteen hundred in the State. The last session of the legislature also provided for the location and erection of an

industrial school for vagrant and delinquent girls, an institution greatly needed in our State. At the same session it was also provided, and an appropriation made, to build a separate institution for the education of the blind; they having heretofore been instructed in the same establishment with the deaf and dumb, much to the regret of our Board, and, as we thought, to the damage of both classes of pupils.

Michigan has been blessed with a long line of governors who were in sympathy with advanced views of philanthropy, and with intelligent care and discipline for the dependent and criminal classes. Its legislature, though inclined to scrutinize closely all new schemes for additional institutions, has always responded with open-handed liberality where a case of necessity has been clearly made out. Our Board of Corrections and Charities has ever been careful to recommend no unconsidered or speculative projects, and has never yet been denied favorable legislation for reasonable requests.

We have to regret, since the last meeting of the Conference at Cincinnati, the death of Hon. Uzziel Putnam, for several years a member of our board. He was a delegate to the Conference at Cincinnati; and many of you will remember him, as you were impressed with the earnestness and sincerity of his manner. Mr. Putnam was a man of such purity of life, and carried about him such an expression of good-will for all to whom he could be of service, that the atmosphere of those fields beyond the swelling flood, to which he was hastening, seemed to encircle him here. Mr. Putnam's place on our board was supplied by the Governor in the appointment of Dr. E. H. Van Deusen, for twenty years and until recently the medical superintendent of the Insane Asylum at Kalamazoo.

WISCONSIN.—BY MR. ELMORE.

Wisconsin as a *State* was thirty-one years old on the fifth day of this month. The New-England States, New York, and Pennsylvania have been perfecting their charitable and penal systems, and erecting suitable buildings, for a century; while in less than one-third of that time we have expended over six millions of dollars. What the States above named have done in a century, we have done in thirty-one years, and no wonder our taxes have been high. Particularly during the past four years of depression has this been felt by the tax-payers. The Wisconsin Institution for the Educa-

tion of the Blind, located at Janesville, has buildings good and substantial, sufficient for the next twenty years. On the 1st of this month there were 75 pupils therein, and about the average number during the year. The Institution for the Deaf and Dumb, at Delavan, had 147 on the 15th of May. There are two institutions for the education of the deaf and dumb at Milwaukee. The Catholic institution had on the 5th of June 53 inmates. The other, called the Milwaukee Phonological Institute, had, last December, 16 pupils. Both these institutions have organized under the general laws of the State. The Industrial School for Boys, at Waukesha, has had, the present year, an average of 420 scholars. Two new buildings are now being erected to accommodate fifty each. The Wisconsin Industrial School for Girls has erected a building at an expense of \$15,000 on lands donated by the city of Milwaukee, and which will accommodate 150 pupils. There are now 56 scholars in the institution. There are other industrial schools organized under the laws of the State, belonging to various denominations. The State Prison at Waupun had, on the 5th inst., 323 inmates; add thereto the 49 State-prisoners confined in the House of Correction at Milwaukee, and the whole number of persons in Wisconsin now in prison on conviction of crime, punishable by confinement in the State Prison, is 372; and the wing built in 1871 has never been used as a prison, and we have plenty of prison-room, we trust, for the next fifty years.

In the Wisconsin Hospital for the Insane at Madison there were, on May 1, 407 patients, and in the Northern Hospital at Oshkosh, at that time, 554 patients. At the Conference held at Saratoga in September, 1877, we said, "The pressing want of Wisconsin, at this time, is a suitable place for the chronic insane;" and the legislature at its next session passed a law providing for county asylums for the insane. The State pays one-half of the expense of erecting such buildings. Milwaukee County, under the provisions of this law, has contracted for the erection of a building to cost \$135,000, and to accommodate 250 patients. It is now being built, and will be completed the 1st of November next. The State Board of Charities has, since its organization, been the subject of violent attack at different times by the press and individuals, but at length its most bitter opponents are forced to admit that it has done, and is doing, some good; and it is admitted now by all that it is a permanent institution, and we hope in the future to do more and better than we have in the past.

ILLINOIS.—BY MR. ROBINSON.

The principal event in the history of the institutions of Illinois, during the past year, has been the session of the General Assembly, which in this State only meets biennially. The usual appropriations for public charities were granted; but I am happy to be able to say that the cost of maintaining our public institutions has been so reduced, during a series of years past, that a much smaller appropriation *per capita* is now sufficient to meet their actual needs. The amount appropriated by our legislature, in 1877, for the ten institutions under the care of the State Board of Charities, for two years, was \$1,533,275.60; in 1879 it was \$1,430,994, a direct reduction of more than \$100,000, but in fact a much greater reduction than appears upon the surface, for the reason that the institutions have been very much enlarged. The Southern Insane Hospital at Anna has been completed, additions made to both wings of the Central Insane Hospital at Jacksonville, two cottages erected upon the grounds of the Northern Insane Hospital at Elgin, and one section of one wing of the Eastern Insane Hospital at Kankakee is now ready to be occupied by patients. The appropriations made by the last Assembly will enable the trustees of the Kankakee Hospital to erect buildings for 225 insane patients. An additional family building has also been erected by the State Reform School at Pontiac. These various enlargements and additions will enable the State to care for one-fifth more inmates in her charitable institutions, during the next two years, than has ever been done before; and the *per capita* cost of maintenance to the State annually, which was in 1877–8 \$206, will not probably exceed \$184 in 1879–80,—a reduction of more than ten per cent in the running expenses, or \$22 per annum for each individual inmate. The amount asked by the State institutions was much greater: the legislature refused to grant them more than eighty per cent of their demands; but we believe that the amount appropriated will be ample to enable them to do their work properly and well. The number of unfortunates maintained in our institutions is very great: it will during the next two years probably exceed three thousand.

The legislature, in making the appropriation for the hospital at Kankakee, authorized and required the trustees to expend \$30,000 in the construction of detached wards, for the use of a class of chronic pauper insane to whom may be granted a larger degree

of personal liberty than is usual in hospitals built in accordance with the propositions of the Association of Medical Superintendents of Hospitals for the Insane. We anticipate that these wards will be much less expensive and more satisfactory than the ordinary hospital-wards, and that the organization of the institution will result in securing from the patients a much larger amount of remunerative labor, which will be for their advantage and for that of the State. With the increase of occupation, there is, of course, a diminished necessity for restraint. Another step has been taken in advance by our General Assembly, in the authority granted to the Commissioners of the Southern Penitentiary at Chester, to erect upon the grounds of that institution a hospital department for insane convicts. This action is preliminary to the complete separation of the criminal and the non-criminal insane, a result believed to be not only desirable but beneficial.

The General Assembly appropriated \$15,000 to aid in supporting and maintaining a school for deaf-mutes in the city of Chicago. It also passed an act authorizing the organization of industrial schools for girls, which provides that seven or more persons, residents of this State, a majority of whom shall be women, who may organize or have organized under the general laws of this State relating to corporations, for the purpose of establishing, maintaining, and carrying on an industrial school for girls, shall, under the corporate name assumed, have all the powers, rights, and privileges of corporations organized under the laws of this State, not for pecuniary profit; the property thereof to be exempt from state and local taxation, provided the assent of the Governor, in writing, first be obtained, and filed in the office of the Secretary of State, to entitle it to the privileges of the act. It also provides that such schools shall be subject to the same visitation and inspection by the State Commissioners of Public Charities as the State charitable and penal institutions, and shall not receive any appropriation from the State treasury.

A bill was introduced, which had the support of the Commissioners of Public Charities, of the State Medical Society, and of a majority of the county judges of Illinois, changing the method of commitment of lunatics to insane-hospitals. I regret to say that, although it passed the Senate, it was not acted upon by the House, owing to the pressure of other and far less important business. We are now operating under a law which requires the submission of the question of insanity, in all cases, to a jury: the law

makes no exception. There are, of course, many cases in which a jury is unnecessary, and even injurious; this law causes much delay in sending patients to the hospital, and diminishes the ratio of cures, thus increasing the burden of sorrow and expense to the people of the State. The bill introduced was carefully drawn, criticised, and corrected, and divided the cases of insanity into two classes,—those in which there is a question of fact for a jury, and those in which there is none; but it left the determination of the class to which any particular case belongs to the judge by whom tried, and authorized him to impanel a jury in every case, if so disposed. There were other features in this bill which rendered its passage very much to be desired, and it will probably receive more attention when the legislature meets again.

Every jail and alms-house in the State has been visited, and a full statement thereof is contained in the report of the Board of State Commissioners of Public Charities, copies of which are herewith submitted.

KANSAS.—BY GEN. TAYLOR.

Mr. President,—In 1876 Kansas made a radical departure from the usual custom of managing charitable institutions. Separate boards of trustees were abolished; and one board was created for all, invested with full powers of administration, and charged with the duty of making needful regulations for the government thereof.

The experiment has proved eminently successful. The cost of administration has been reduced at least twenty per cent, and rivalries and strife between institutions have been supplanted by the desire to show which can best work and best agree. The Board of Charities is composed of five members, appointed by the governor for the period of three years. No power of removal exists, except perhaps by impeachment. A secretary and treasurer are chosen from their own number; and a finance-committee is appointed annually by the chairman, which, when appointed, examines, audits, and orders paid, all the accounts against the institutions. This Board has charge of the Institutions for the Education of the Deaf and Dumb and the Blind, the Asylums for the Insane, and the Reform School. No general power of supervision is conferred by statute upon any board or officer of the State: yet we are proud to be able to say that public sentiment is such, that, should the keeper of a prison or a poorhouse close his

doors upon a member of the State Board, or other person, who desires to make an inspection of his work, he would be relegated to the shades of private life at the very first opportunity.

The Penitentiary has a separate board of directors, who manage its concerns, and report directly to the governor. It is not within our province to enter into the details of its management; suffice it to say, it is, under its present Warden, who has given his life to this work, a model institution in every respect. It has no superior among prisons; few are equal to it.

Kansas has an Institution for the education of the Blind, located at Wyandotte, which, although somewhat crowded, with the addition now under construction will be ample to accommodate this unfortunate class. A thorough English and musical education is here given, and all the pupils are required to receive industrial training. The males are taught broom, brush, and mattress making; the females, the manufacture of hats, sewing, and household work. The Deaf and Dumb Institution is located at Olathe, and, with the extension now under construction, will be sufficient to accommodate the present demands of the State; although, from the unparalleled immigration we are receiving, the number both of blind, and deaf and dumb, is increasing with astonishing rapidity. This institution, from the boot and shoe department, supplies the Insane Asylums and the Institution for the Blind. It has also a cabinet-shop, a dressmaking, and millinery department; and the girls are also instructed in household work. A tin-shop will be added during the ensuing season.

We are not able to give any accurate statistics as to our insane population. The State has no settlement-laws. Under the Constitution, six months' residence invests the immigrant with all the privileges of citizenship. Many who are unable to maintain their unfortunate children or friends in other States, and give them the benefit of treatment or education, remove to Kansas. With a present residence, and an intention as to future or continued residence, the right of protection and relief, and the duty to educate, become vested. Thus, with a population of about eight hundred and twenty-five thousand, there are about seven hundred insane within the confines of the State. In this are included many of the feeble-minded and all the epileptic.

The Constitution of Kansas makes it the imperative duty of the Legislature to provide for all the unfortunate, of whatever class; therefore, when it was ascertained, in 1876, that the asylum-

accommodations were inadequate, not only were appropriations made for extensions, but a law was passed requiring the respective counties of the State to provide for all whose applications had been rejected by the Superintendent of the Insane Asylum, and to draw upon the Auditor of State for \$3.50 per week to pay for their care. There can be no public patients, however, without a verdict of *non compos mentis* by a jury, and the finding of the probate-judge that the insane person is unable to maintain himself. Private patients are admitted upon the certificates of two respectable practising physicians, accompanied by bonds to cover the expense of board, now \$2.80 per week. Private patients may be changed into public by application to the probate-judge.

Under the law of 1876, some of the counties have farmed their insane population out; and thus, to some extent, we have experienced the effect of the family treatment when cared for by attendants and county physicians who are not experts. Kansas has concluded to drop the curtain over that experience. Out of the entire number thus cared for, not *two per cent* recovered. The Board therefore ordered the superintendent, upon the receipt of an application from a recent case, to return a harmless chronic patient to his county, that room might thus be made for the recent cases. And so overwhelming was the conviction of the importance of prompt attention by experts, that the last legislature made an appropriation to open two sections of the south wing of the Topeka Asylum, and also for finishing the asylum at Osawatomie, and for occupying it. It has been determined to occupy detached cottages upon the Asylum-grounds, for the chronic insane, who will be grouped in families of about twenty, with the necessary head.

Recognizing that sunshine is the best stimulant, as large a percentage as the facilities will admit of are engaged in out-of-door and industrial pursuits, with excellent results. In addition to the two State Institutions, a private asylum has recently been established at Leavenworth.

Kansas has, perchance, been obliged to erect modest, unostentatious public buildings, and our tax-rolls admit of no extravagance in other expenditures. The land, having all been held by the United States, is not subject to taxation until the settler becomes seized in fee. In the erection of asylums, our effort has been to secure the comfort of domestic life, as it is found among our best farmers, and thus to give to the unfortunates the comforts to

which they are accustomed, and to which they must return when discharged.

The legislature of last winter made some important changes in our laws: viz., —

1. Devolved the selection of officers of the respective asylums upon the Board, who elect for three years, "subject to removal only for sufficient cause, which shall be determined by full investigation by the board of trustees."

2. Requires the superintendent, at least semi-annually, to submit an estimate of supplies required, for the inspection of the Board. After due advertisement, the contract therfor is let to the lowest bidder. He is also required to present to the finance-committee, monthly, an estimate for all articles which may have been omitted from the semi-annual estimate. No other purchases are permitted, except upon an unforeseen emergency. All purchases except on contract are made by the steward in open market.

3. All property injured, damaged, or lost, must be reported by the supervisors to the superintendent, and must be kept until inspected. The trustees semi-annually appoint a Board of Survey, who inspect the property, and report by whom the damage was done, whether from carelessness or neglect, on the part of attendants or responsible parties, and the value, which is then charged to the delinquents, and deducted from their pay. (This has already diminished the destruction of property one-third.)

4. The steward is required to charge himself with all property and supplies of the asylum, at their invoice value; and all property not accounted for is charged to him, and is required to be paid for in thirty days. Default in the payment works a forfeiture of his office.

5. Monthly payments are made. No distinction is made between male and female employees.

6. The steward has charge of all out-door work, subject to the orders of the superintendent.

By these measures we believe we have so relieved the superintendent, that he is enabled to give his personal attention and efforts to the amelioration of the condition of the unfortunates with whose welfare he is directly intrusted.

INDIANA.—BY MR. EARLY.

Mr. J. P. Early gave a brief account of affairs in Indiana. That State had no Board of Charities, but some effort had been made of late to establish one. There was a reformatory prison for women, with which Mrs. Thomas A. Hendricks and Mrs. C. F. Coffin were intimately connected; and also a girls' reformatory, which, however, contained less than two hundred girls. They had just provided for an institution for the feeble-minded, which was a scheme yet to be tried. He prided himself on the character of their hospitals for the insane. They had one institution which cost a million dollars. They tried to take as good care of their unfortunate and criminal classes as any State. They would have a less number of the latter class if it were not for the fact that the large cities of the East were sending boys there to find homes. They were unfortunate in finding many others within their borders who were passing over their territory to other points East or West.

PENNSYLVANIA.—BY MR. MILLIGAN.

Rev. J. L. Milligan, Chaplain of the Western Penitentiary, in the absence of Dr. Luther of Pennsylvania reported for that State. He said that the Pennsylvania Board of Charities had done a very good work, and an advance had been made, not only in the care of the insane, but in the protection and care of the general poor. For the last two years the State had been wrought up considerably on the subject of building hospitals for the insane. Two large buildings were in process of construction, and would hold a high place in the esteem of humane people. The powers of the Board had been continued so as to include the supervision of penal institutions. In the State of Pennsylvania they were divided between two systems. The eastern counties still clung to the old barbarous system of solitary labor in cells. In Western Pennsylvania this system had been abolished, and the convicts no longer work in solitude.

A very noticeable improvement had been made in the system of public charities. New asylums had been erected, the poorhouses improved, and the general treatment of criminals was being reduced to a humane and corrective system. Public sentiment supported the Board of Charities; and it had done a good work in keeping up a central office to which penal and charitable institutions had to report, and to report correctly. In regard to

the insane, the Board had been very active and successful. The Western Asylum at Dixmont, under Dr. Reed, stood in the very front rank of scientifically-managed insane-asylums.

The Eastern Penitentiary at Philadelphia had been enlarged by the addition of fifty cells for solitary confinement. The Western Penitentiary had received an appropriation of three hundred thousand dollars for its removal from Allegheny City to a point three miles farther down the river. The Philadelphia Penitentiary adhered to solitary confinement and unremunerative labor in the cells. The Western Penitentiary pursued the opposite policy, and taught trades to the prisoners.

In regard to legislation in Pennsylvania, Mr. Milligan said that his State was rather conservative, but he thought her tramp-laws so strict that the ambulatory loafer would be very glad to give Pennsylvania a wide berth. There had been no change in the charitable laws during the last year. One thing of importance was the establishment, in the central portion of the State, of a prison for boys and men, under the age of twenty-five, who had been convicted for the first time.

NEW YORK. — BY SEVERAL DELEGATES.

Before the presentation of the regular report from New York, made by Dr. C. S. Hoyt, Secretary of the State Board of Charities, Mr. Letchworth, President of that Board, said that others also would speak on special points. Dr. H. B. Wilbur, Superintendent of the New York Idiot Asylum at Syracuse, who also represents the custodial branch of the Asylum for the cure of female idiots at Newark, is present, and will be able to inform the Conference fully as to the working of these institutions. The Susquehanna Valley Home is represented here by Mr. J. P. Noyes, who will speak of this institution. Its work embraces seven counties, and its aim is to restore the dependent children of those counties to family life. The Children's Aid Society of New York City is represented by Mr. J. W. Skinner, who will at the proper time speak of the extended work of this society. The Bureau of Charities of Kings County, having its headquarters in the city of Brooklyn, is represented in the person of Mr. Seth Low, who has prepared a paper on "The Problem of Pauperism," which he will submit at the pleasure of the Conference. I should not fail to mention that Mrs. C. R. Lowell, a member of the State Board of Charities, has prepared a paper, which is in the hands of the

Secretaries of the Conference, who also have letters from organizations and institutions extensively engaged in charitable work. Among these are the following: from Miss Susan M. Van Amringe, Secretary of the State Charities Aid Association; Mrs. A. D. Lord, of the New York Institution for the Blind at Batavia; Israel C. Jones, Superintendent of the New York House of Refuge; Mr. George E. McGonegal, Superintendent of the Poor of Monroe County, and President of the State Convention of Superintendents of the Poor of the State of New York; Dr. Willard Porter, Superintendent and Physician of the New York Institution for the Deaf and Dumb, New York City; and William B. Wait, Superintendent of the New York Institution for the Blind, New York City.

Dr. Hoyt then gave a brief history of his experience and observations, and the condition of affairs in his State. There had been a substantial reduction of pauperism in New York as a result of the application of intelligent remedies. The care of the chronic insane was one of the chief difficulties with which they had to contend, and he believed it was the same in other States. This difficulty had culminated in the establishment of the Willard Asylum on Seneca Lake, for the chronic insane, by themselves. The tendency of opinion was in favor of this separation, and he had no doubt the legislature would soon provide for another institution of the kind, in addition to that just established at Binghamton.

The establishment of institutions for feeble-minded girls had been an important step in advance, and he thought the result would prove satisfactory. The State Board of New York had nothing to do with prisons. Since it was organized, in 1867, it had done much to improve the county poor-houses. The chronic class of insane had never been brought under State influence until the establishment of the Board. Now they had as much care as the acute insane. It had been demonstrated in New York that the system of having the insane-asylum and poorhouse under the same direction, and at the same place, was a failure. The insane needed separation. Children were also being removed from the poor-houses, and New York had made a great advance in the treatment of all dependent children. A long step forward was the establishment of the Custodial Asylum for Female Idiots, which was economically managed, and promised to become self-supporting, beside taking care of a class of feeble-minded persons, and restraining them from becoming the parents of diseased offspring.

The legislature had generously responded to the recommendations of the Board of Charities.

Dr. Wilbur said the result of many years of experiment had decided that idiot-asylums should be educational, and the object of the education should be preparation for some form of labor. The question then arose, what should be done with idiots after they had left the educational institutions, and with idiots too low to be educated. In New York it seemed probable that a secondary institution would be established for the care of such cases. In her visits to county poorhouses, Mrs. Lowell had found many feeble-minded women and girls who were the mothers of illegitimate children. The State was asked to afford the means of establishing an asylum for them. This had been done, and the institution was now in its second year with about 75 inmates, whose annual maintenance was very low, being only about \$120.

MASSACHUSETTS. — BY MR. SPAULDING.

Mr. W. F. Spaulding of Massachusetts, Secretary of the new Board of Prison Commissioners, said that in his State the charitable and penal institutions were separate. The last legislature had established a consolidated commission called the Board of Health, Charities, and Lunacy. Only Saturday last the commission had been appointed, and were soon to enter upon their duties, in regard to which he would refer the Conference to the report of Mr. Sanborn, to be presented later in the day. This commission would go into operation July 1, and take charge of all the public charities of the State.

Recently there was an effort to abolish the Reform School for Girls at Lancaster. It had not been doing the work for which it was intended. It was intended to take care of girls, but had come to be used for the older female offenders. The abolition of the school was defeated, and the school would be restored to its original uses.

Under the new Prison Act, there was a commission of three men and two women having the supervision of all prisons, including the two State prisons, with power to transfer convicts. In the appointment of this and the other new commissions, politics did not figure at all.

The Women's Prison at Sherborn is wholly administered by women, and is decidedly successful. Only ten per cent of the discharged convicts return to prison, and they are short-term

convicts. The commissioners had been trying to secure longer sentences, especially for women. Many women were committed for drunkenness, and short periods of incarceration did no good. The last legislature authorized sentences for from four months to two years. The long sentences had already an excellent deterrent effect. In Massachusetts the maximum of criminal population seemed to have been reached. At present the criminal population was five per cent less than the previous year, the first time for some years that a reduction had appeared.

OHIO.—BY DR. BYERS AND GEN. BRINKERHOFF.

Dr. Byers, Secretary of the Board of Charities, reported the work of that Board, referring to the address of Gen. Brinkerhoff to the legislature, which would be presented to the Conference. One of the recommendations of the Board was the building of an epileptic-asylum, and another was the bringing together of all the idiots in the State. It was believed that these recommendations could be carried out with little, if any, addition to the total yearly expense.

The General Assembly was about enacting laws that would eliminate partisan political interference in the administration of public charities. It was proposed that after 1883 each institution should be managed by four trustees, two from each of the political parties, with the governor for the chairman of the board. The State Board of Charities would then be organized in the same way.

Gen. Brinkerhoff said the address referred to by Dr. Byers expressed the opinions of the Board, and covered the whole ground. The asylums and penitentiaries of the State were crowded, and the governor had recommended the addition of new buildings. A deaf-and-dumb asylum would be erected, and the Board was trying to secure the erection of an asylum for the chronic insane.

AFTERNOON SESSION.

JUNE 10.

The Conference was called to order at three P.M.; and Mr. Lord of Michigan, from the Committee on Permanent Organization, reported the following officers, who were elected:—

Chairman, Gen. R. Brinkerhoff of Ohio.

Secretaries, Charles S. Hoyt of New York, F. B. Sanborn of Massachusetts, A. G. Byers of Ohio, J. L. Milligan of Pennsylvania, Fred. H. Wines of Illinois, Henry W. Lord of Michigan, T. D. Kanouse of Wisconsin.

Gen. Brinkerhoff was then conducted to the chair, and introduced by the retiring Chairman, Hon. G. S. Robinson.

On motion, a vote of thanks was tendered to the retiring Chairman for the courteous and efficient performance of the duties intrusted to him. On motion of Rev. J. L. Milligan, the Conference agreed to accept an invitation of the ladies of the Illinois Social Science Association to a reception to be held on Thursday evening, June 12, after the close of the business of the evening.

Gen. Brinkerhoff, on taking the chair, made a few remarks, expressing his sense of the importance of the work undertaken.

The reports of the Secretaries of the Conference of 1878 (Mr. F. B. Sanborn, Rev. A. G. Byers, and Rev. J. L. Milligan), on the laws and their administration during the past year, were then read. Mr. Sanborn's report covered the New England States and New York, that of Mr. Milligan the States south of New York, while Dr. Byers reported for the Western States.

I. THE YEAR'S WORK IN ADMINISTRATION AND LEGISLATION.

BY F. B. SANBORN OF MASSACHUSETTS, A SECRETARY OF THE CONFERENCE.

MR. CHAIRMAN, AND MEMBERS OF THE CONFERENCE.—In dividing the work assigned to the three secretaries of the Cincinnati Conference, respecting the legislation and administration in charitable and penal affairs since that Conference adjourned in May, 1878, it fell to my lot to report on the New-England States and New York, while Dr. Byers was to take Ohio and the Northwestern States, and Mr. Milligan was to report on Pennsylvania and the more Southern States. In conformity with this division of labor, I now present my report for the seven States, including between eight and nine millions of inhabitants, in which public charities and prison discipline have longest been the subject of legislation, and have perhaps been most systematically and persistently regulated by official administration. If to these were added the State of Pennsylvania, upon which I may occasionally remark, my province would be the whole older portion of the

United States, in which, from density of population, exposure to direct immigration, and other circumstances, the problems of public charity earliest assumed, and have most steadily maintained, magnitude and variety. In the Southern States, from the prevalence of slavery, and the comparative absence of immigration and of great cities; in the Western States, from the recency of their settlement and the great opportunities for labor and self-support,—these problems have not, until within the past twenty years, assumed much magnitude. At present, however, from the facility of communication between one section and another, and from the immense development of manufacturing and commercial industry,—the latter involving railroad-transportation and all the complicated questions that affect railroads and canals, and the navigation of inland lakes and rivers,—the conditions of pauperism and crime which prevail in one part of the country are shared and equalized with other parts of the country to an extent never known before the civil war. In popular belief, and, to a considerable degree, in fact, the tramp is a person who thus equalizes and distributes the wretchedness and vice of one community to the people of another. Hence we see in the past year, as for several preceding years, many laws passed, and much strictness of administration adopted, to check or exterminate the tramp.

This sort of legislation has been particularly noticeable in New England and New York. New Hampshire, in the summer of 1878, passed a very strict law against vagrancy, making it a State-prison offence, and requiring little evidence to convict a tramp. Although the severity of this law has been much censured in some quarters, and is probably too great to allow it to remain in active force for many years, it still seems to have had the effect that was intended, and to have greatly diminished the number of tramps in New Hampshire. This is the testimony of several residents of that State whom I have questioned, and is the opinion of the State government. In Connecticut, where the chief cities of Hartford and New Haven adopted in 1878 a system of dealing strictly with tramps by city ordinance, the effect was to turn them aside from the cities to the country towns. In consequence of this, the representatives of these rural towns, in the present year, passed a State law, which is now beginning to be enforced throughout Connecticut, with results similar to those noticed in New Hampshire. New York also, at the close of its recent legislative session, passed a severe law against tramps, which was promptly

vetoed by Governor ROBINSON; and I believe Pennsylvania has again increased, this year, the strictness of her laws to repress vagrancy. Partly in consequence of this legislation, and more by reason of the revival of industry in the whole country, the number of tramps in all the Eastern States is much less now than it was in 1878.

Laws of this kind, by their unequal operation, point strongly to the utility of a uniform system of legislation, and, so far as possible, of administering the laws in regard to the whole range of public charity and correction. It will be long before the forty States of our Union adopt such uniformity; but there has been for fifteen years or more a tendency in that direction, the most obvious result of which has been the creation in so many States of official boards to regulate what the State government itself has to do with public charity. The same tendency is perceptible, and has lately manifested itself more rapidly, in regard to sanitary matters, by the establishment of State Boards of Health in about twenty States since 1869, and finally, under the pressure of the yellow-fever excitement of 1878, by the organization of a National Board of Health at Washington. This movement in Massachusetts has, within the past year, connected itself with the other for the creation of boards of charities; and we now have a joint Board of Health and Charities, created by law and appointed by the governor, with added powers and duties, upon which it will enter in July next. This feature of legislation in Massachusetts is the most important that I have to report from that State, and may claim, perhaps, an explanation of some length, in course of which may be presented (as I have been asked to do) a brief exposition of the reasons for creating in any State the organization known as a Board of Public Charities.

Massachusetts was the first State to establish such a board. She did so in 1863, at the recommendation of her most distinguished governor of recent years, the late JOHN A. ANDREW, by whose appointment I held, for the first five years, the secretaryship of the Massachusetts Board of State Charities. The boards created in New York in 1867, in Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, and Illinois in 1869, and in Michigan and Wisconsin in 1871, were all, to some extent, modelled after the Massachusetts board, though with many variations and some improvements. Other boards were temporarily established in Missouri, North Carolina, and Ohio; and in the last-named State the Board of Charities has

been revived, after a suspension of a year or two. In Kansas a board somewhat similar exists, and another in Connecticut. It will be difficult to present the argument for such boards so as to apply with equal force in States that differ so much in all their circumstances as those just mentioned. But there are good reasons why even a small State, like Rhode Island, should maintain a Board of Public Charities; and these reasons greatly increase with the increased size and population of any State. No State with a population of a million can afford to be without such a central board; and it would be better if each of the lesser States had one, small in numbers if you please, but ample in powers.

Public charity, in every nation, must be mainly a local matter,—that is, the aid given to the poor, everywhere, must chiefly be given in the locality where they are found, or near it. The township, the city, or the county where the poor person is found, must, in the first instance, undertake the task of relieving his necessities; and perhaps you will say that public charity, which, like all charity, "begins at home," should stay there, and should not spread out so as to become a State affair. But, if you will consider for a moment, you will see that there are some kinds of public dependence (that created by insanity, for example), in which the power and wealth of the locality are insufficient to meet the emergency, and the State must come in to build and regulate the hospital or asylum where the beneficiaries of public charity are to be treated. In other cases the State must interpose to separate the vicious from the honest poor, the infected from those in good health, the children from those who would only corrupt and debase childhood, and so on. The inspection and authority of the State is also useful to produce economy of expenditure in the localities, uniformity of treatment for the sick and infirm, the removal to their proper place of those poor persons about whom the separate localities may be in doubt or dispute, the correction of local grievances and abuses, and for the dissemination of a wider knowledge and more correct principles concerning the whole care of the poor. This last duty of State Boards of Charity is best fulfilled when carried to its furthest extent in such conferences as this, where the representatives of States and of cities meet to compare notes with each other, and to disseminate over the whole country the results of experience and close observation.

So much for the general theory of State boards; for the argument applies as well to public health as to public charity. But

in each State, varying in each according to its peculiar circumstances of statute or condition, there will also be certain administrative, financial, or semi-judicial functions, which boards of public charity will be called upon to perform, and which they alone can best execute. Thus, in Rhode Island, the Board of State Charities is expected to direct and carry on the management of the State establishments where the poor and criminal are detained; in Illinois the same board is required to keep the expenditure for such establishments within due bounds, and to guard the State treasury from loss by extravagance. In Massachusetts a somewhat different duty is imposed, in consequence of the long-existing division of the poor there into "town paupers" (the settled poor), and "State paupers" (the unsettled poor). The State Board has the State paupers, sane and insane, young and old, sick and well, specially under its care, whether they reside in State establishments, or are scattered through the towns and cities of their residence. Consequently the Massachusetts Board of Charities comes into closer personal relations, through its members and agents, with the poor themselves, and the local overseers of the poor, than does any other such board in America. Its records preserve the annals of the poor—in many instances any thing but "short and simple"—in tens and even hundreds of thousands of individual cases which its agents have searched out; and its duties towards these poor persons, now for nearly sixteen years, have been multifarious and increasingly important. It visits them in their wretched homes, it seeks to guard them against epidemic and contagious disease; it removes them, oftentimes, to where their friends and relatives may provide for them; it places the children in country families, and watches over their interests in such families; it investigates the record of their past lives in order to determine in which class of the poor they belong, and where they can most properly receive public assistance; and in many other ways it makes itself acquainted with the condition, from month to month and from year to year, of the dependent and dangerous element in our population. Such an acquaintance is absolutely necessary in order to administer public charity without doing more harm than good; and, the nearer an official Board can come to an exact knowledge of all these things, the better will its work be performed.

Now, in making such inquiries, and in dealing with the poor in this way, the Massachusetts Board of Charities found that it came

in contact, at almost every point, with facts and conditions materially affecting the public health. It is through the diseases of the poor, neglected or improperly treated, that general disease often comes upon a community. You may remember the striking example of this which Carlyle gives, quoting, some six and thirty years ago, from Dr. Alison's "Management of the Poor in Scotland": —

"A poor Irish widow, her husband having died in one of the lanes of Edinburgh, went forth with her three children to solicit help from the charitable establishments of that city. She was refused: referred from one to the other, helped by none, till she had exhausted them all, till her strength and heart failed her; she sunk down in typhus-fever, died, and infected her lane with fever, so that *seventeen* other persons died of fever there in consequence. The humane physician thereupon asks, as with a heart too full for speaking, 'Would it not have been *economy* to help this poor widow? She took typhus-fever, and killed seventeen of you.' The forlorn Irish widow applies to her fellow-creatures, as if saying, 'Behold, I am sinking, bare of help; ye must help me! I am your sister, bone of your bone; one God made us: ye *must* help me!' They answer, 'No, impossible; thou art no sister of ours.' But she proves her sisterhood; her typhus-fever kills them; they actually were her brothers, though denying it."

The same truth, in a less imaginative form, was stated by Dr. Wheelwright in his paper at the Cincinnati Conference last year. He says: —

"It is in the squalid dwellings of the poor that the poisons are generated which carry pain and death into the mansions of the rich, and the comfortable homes of the middling classes, whose pure water and untainted food, airy rooms and well-drained premises, do not protect them from the insidious germ of the pestilence. The tie between the high and the humble is too close to be severed, and the sanitary consequences cannot be averted till their causes are annihilated. And how shall this be accomplished? Clearly, it must be the united work of the individual and the government. When these evils arise they must be met and studied, combated and destroyed."

Acting in the light of these principles, and for the purpose of combating these sanitary evils where they work the most harm, — among the poor, — Massachusetts has this year followed the example set some years ago by England and Scotland, and has put the

supervision of the public health and of the public charities under a single commission, larger than either of the boards which were displaced to make room for the new Board of Health, Lunacy, and Charity. It consists of nine members, three of whom will be specially assigned to the duties of the Board of Health, three to those of the Board of Charities, while three will assume the new duties of Commissioners of Lunacy, which the act imposes; and the whole nine will act together upon the more important questions in each of these three branches of their general work. It is probable that a majority of these nine members, as first appointed, will be men who have received a medical education; and among them will be Dr. Bowditch, at present chairman of the State Board of Health, Dr. Allen, formerly chairman of the Board of State Charities, and Dr. Hitchcock, so long at the head of the sanitary department of Amherst College. It is plain that the interests of sanitary science will not suffer at the hands of a board thus constituted, while it is confidently believed that a more practical turn will be given to the administration of the health laws of Massachusetts by a board possessed of greater executive power than has hitherto been granted in that State. The general system of charities will probably remain without material change, except, perhaps, in the treatment of the insane, concerning whom the last legislature has indicated that a change in some respects is necessary; while the courts of the State have also, by some recent decisions, intimated that they can no longer sustain the former practice in regard to the commitment and detention of the alleged insane. The tenor of these decisions and of the legislative enactments is this,—that mere insanity or aberration of mind shall no longer be considered in Massachusetts a sufficient ground for committing a citizen to an insane asylum or hospital, or for detaining him there, unless it shall also appear that such commitment or detention is likely to be useful to him in the treatment of his malady or the comfort of his situation, or else advisable for the protection and comfort of others, whom his insanity might annoy or harm if he remained outside of the asylum or hospital. One of the new laws provides that the insane person may be discharged, if “he is not dangerous to himself or to others, and ought not longer to be so confined.” A second law provides that no insane person shall be committed “to any hospital, asylum, or other receptacle for the insane, public or private,” without the order of a judge of some court, acting upon a view and examina-

tion of the alleged lunatic, when possible, and upon "a certificate signed by two physicians, each of whom shall be a graduate of some legally organized medical college, shall have practised three years in the State, and neither of whom shall be connected with any hospital or other establishment for treatment of the insane." Each physician must also certify that the person in question is "a proper subject for treatment in an insane-hospital," and must specify the facts on which his opinion is founded.

These new laws are regarded in Massachusetts as very important in placing the commitment and detention of insane persons on a practical basis of public necessity or private usefulness, which, it is hoped, will prevent both actual abuses, and the constant allegation that such abuses exist. No other New-England State has gone quite so far as this, I believe, in its legislation; nor can I learn that the active agitation in New York last winter, for certain changes in the management of the insane-asylums of that State, had any immediate practical result in legislation. It was voted by the New-York legislature to convert the Binghamton Inebriate Asylum, that costly failure, into a receptacle for the chronic insane, of the same general character as the Willard Asylum; and the latter was authorized to expend \$100,000 in providing room for two hundred and fifty more patients. The New-York Board of Charities was directed to examine into the necessity for another asylum for the chronic insane in Northern New York; and appropriations were made for the enlargement of several of the existing hospitals and asylums, one of which, at Buffalo, will probably be opened for patients in the present year. In Massachusetts the weekly sum paid by the State and the towns for the board of insane paupers in the State hospitals has been reduced from \$3.50 to \$3.00; and it is found that all these hospitals, except the very costly structure at Danvers, can be carried on at the rate now fixed by law.

An interesting feature of charitable administration during the year past has been the introduction, into several cities of New England and New York, of the so-called "charity organization" system of London. The first successful operation of this system seems to have been at Buffalo, where, under the direction of Rev. Mr. Gurteen and others, it has become firmly established. It has also been introduced with useful results at Boston, Springfield, Mass., Newport, R.I., and New Haven, Conn. This system will no doubt be explained to the Conference by delegates from some

of the cities where it is established; and further mention of it may here be omitted, except to say that it is a matter every way worthy of the attention of all charitable persons. In the city of Providence, and in several of the Massachusetts cities, the local authorities have dealt very thoroughly with the abuses of out-door relief and the tramp nuisance, with results that are very gratifying, both from an economical and a humane point of view. In consequence of this, and of the partial revival of industry and trade, the cost of relieving pauperism in New England is considerably less than it was a year ago. At the same time the methods of dealing with the poor have been improved; and in Massachusetts a law has been passed forbidding the detention of children in city almshouses, and allowing them to be boarded out in families at the public expense, as has been practised for some years in Great Britain.

In Massachusetts and in Connecticut the control of the highest prisons has been vested by law in new boards, with ample powers, and with every intention on their part to improve the administration of the State prisons. There has not yet been time enough to see how this re-organization of the prisons will result in practice; but much is hoped from it. In Massachusetts, where we now have a State prison for women, with about three hundred and fifty inmates at present, the new Prison Commission consists of three men and two women, and has under its oversight not only the State prisons at Concord (for men) and at Sherborn (for women), both which it controls in all their financial concerns, &c., but also the twenty county prisons, in which there are now more than two thousand prisoners. Here also, as in regard to the new Board of Health, Lunacy, and Charity, there has been a large addition to the powers and duties of the new officials, and therefore it is right to expect much from them. In New York Mr. Pilsbury is going forward with his energetic administration of the State prisons, while Mr. Brockway, in his Reformatory at Elmira, is working out with much diligence and good sense the difficult task set before him.

In conclusion let me again call attention to the manifold uses which every State, large or small, must have for a Board of Charities as well as for a Board of Health, and suggest the practicability of uniting the work of these two boards, as has this year been done in Massachusetts. Such a union will be found in practice much more feasible than it may appear in theory; it will

strengthen the hands of those who watch over the public health, while it will throw an additional protection over the comfort of those unfortunate classes for whom we are all interested,—the suffering poor, the insane, and the innocent children of vice and poverty. We owe this union of the two Boards in Massachusetts to the clear practical wisdom and determined philanthropy of Gov. TALBOT, who first suggested it, and has carried it forward. Those who have had most experience in our charities regard it with great favor, and are prepared to recommend it to other States.

II. PENNSYLVANIA AND THE SOUTH.

REPORT OF REV. J. L. MILLIGAN.

From New Jersey there is nothing of special importance to report. Pennsylvania has passed a stringent tramp law, which I will read and remark upon later.

The Pennsylvania legislature has been giving some attention to her penal institutions recently. One year ago a law was enacted creating a middle district, by cutting off certain counties from the eastern and western parts of the State, and appropriating one hundred thousand dollars for the initiatory purposes looking toward the erection of a third penitentiary. A commission was appointed by the governor to select a site, complete the plans of the building, and go forward within the provisions of the law, according to their judgment. After considerable travelling, and examination of prisons, the Commission selected the location in what they deemed the centre of the new district, and combining other advantages which determined their choice; but the present legislature failed to make any further provision of money for carrying forward the work proposed, so that for the present the scheme rests for want of funds. What the future will develop, is not easy to predict. It is probable, however, from the apparent sentiment, that the original provisions of the law will be superseded by some other basis of erection and a different object. If carried out as proposed, it would really have enlarged the scope of the solitary system, which is not gaining favor in some of the counties that would have been made tributary to it had it been carried to its completion. That it may, however, be built as an intermediate prison, somewhat after the New York State Reformatory at Elmira, is not entirely improbable. Many men of the State, who have given thought to the wants of the State in regard to young criminals and those con-

victed for the first time, feel strongly disposed to urge its completion on this progressive basis. It then could be made to combine all the best features which the present status of penitentiary science presents.

Besides the law above referred to, creating the new or middle district of the State, the legislature has authorized the removal of the Western Penitentiary, now located in the city of Allegheny, to a site three miles farther down the Ohio River, and has appropriated three hundred thousand dollars for the beginning of the work ; which, within the last few months, the inspectors have undertaken, and have already fitted up shops and dormitories from the old House of Refuge buildings now on the ground, sufficient for the accommodation of several hundred prisoners. Over two hundred are now there and at work remunerative to the State. The present quarters and shops are simply temporary, in order to relieve the crowded condition of the present penitentiary building, which has served its purpose for more than half a century. It was erected for solitary confinement, and for dull, unremunerative, and unhealthy labor in the cells, which more than ten years ago was supplanted by labor, learning, and worship, under attractive and humane conditions. The labor performed is shoemaking, chain-making, and making tinware, brooms, and cigars. The number of prisoners is eight hundred, and all who are able to work are employed. The judicial district is composed of thirty-three counties, or one-half of the State. The new building, completed according to the plans now adopted, will contain twelve hundred cells, one-half of which will probably be ready for occupation within one year.

The Eastern Penitentiary has also been enlarged during the year by building fifty additional cells. The so-called separate system still prevails there ; but it is only so in name, as in many cases the cells have to accommodate two inmates. This the authorities doubtless feel to be a necessity and an innovation to be deeply deplored, as it at once strikes at the root of the system which has so long been boasted of and bolstered up by our Eastern friends.

No new laws controlling or changing the distribution of the charities of the State have been enacted during the year. The Board of State Charities still holds its place among the machinery of the State. Since the last meeting of this Association, the worthy President of this Board, Hon. Mr. Coleman, was called away from the prominent place he filled, by death.

The present legislature has passed a law intended to correct the tramp-nuisance, which has become such a terror and burden in the State. It defines a tramp to be "any person going about from place to place, begging, asking, or subsisting upon charity, and for the purpose of acquiring money or a living; and who shall have no fixed place of residence or lawful occupation in the county or city in which he shall be arrested. Such shall be taken and deemed to be a tramp, and guilty of a misdemeanor, and, on conviction, shall be sentenced to undergo an imprisonment by separate and solitary confinement, at labor, or in the county jail or workhouse, for not more than twelve months, in the discretion of the court," &c.

Mr. Milligan said the best way of getting any information regarding the Southern States was through Congressmen. None of these States had State boards of charities. Most of them let out their convicts in chain-gangs for working in mines, on railroads, and on farms. The labor was sold for a very small sum. In Alabama recommendations have been made to the State legislature which would have some influence in protecting prisoners from brutality. Maryland, though without a State board of charities, had a most intelligent warden of its Penitentiary, Mr. Wilkinson; and Mr. Griffith of Baltimore had organized prison societies intended to look after prison management.

III. THE WEST AND NORTH-WEST.

REPORT OF DR. BYERS.

Dr. Byers said that the reports from gentlemen representing the North-west and Kansas had been so full in regard to recent legislation and administration that he had little to add; especially in view of the instructive papers that were soon to come before the Conference. Concerning Ohio, he would say that the General Assembly, at its session of 1877-78, re-organized all the public institutions of the State,—benevolent, reformatory, and penal. The change, of course, was followed, as was designed, by a very general change in the administrative officers. The principal change in the laws relating to these institutions was one giving authority to boards of trustees to appoint the personnel,—subordinates as well as the chief officers. The changes in law and administration, owing chiefly to this fact, have not been satisfactory.

In regard to Minnesota, the Hon. J. S. Irons, Secretary of State, reports that recent laws enacted in that State, relating to public charities, were "principally amendatory." The committee is indebted to the courtesy of Hon. Samuel J. Alexander, Secretary of State of Nebraska, for a complete copy of the laws of that State. A hurried glance at these shows the following enactments by the last General Assembly: 1. An Act setting apart a portion of the public domain of the State for the use of the State Hospital for the Insane; 2. Extending the lease of State-prison and convict labor; 3. To enlarge and improve the Insane Asylum; 4. Establishing a State Reform School; 5. Providing for industrial education in the Deaf and Dumb Institution; 6. An Act relating to Tramps, providing punishment for refusal to work when begging subsistence, and making a menace, or threat of violence, a felony.

As a general remark, it is proper to observe that the new States of the West, rapidly filling up from the intelligent and enterprising population of the older States, are keeping pace in the scope, organization, and administration of public benevolent, reformatory, and penal institutions, and in not a few instances have laid tribute the experience of older States in securing an improved system in the new.

THE PREVENTION OF PAUPERISM.

In the name of the General Committee on the Prevention of Pauperism, the Ohio Sub-Committee (Messrs. John W. Andrews, Robert W. Steele, and J. K. Rukenbrod) presented to the Conference the following Report, which was read by Dr. Byers: —

STATE CHARITIES AND PAUPERISM.

The investigations and experience of the Board of State Charities of Ohio have led substantially to the following conclusions as to the prevention of pauperism:

1. There should be established by law, in every county, or district made up of smaller counties, a Children's Home for all dependent children, not one of whom should remain longer than is absolutely necessary in an infirmary or poorhouse. These Homes should have the constant supervision of women, and should be simply transitional and preparatory until homes can be found for the children in private families; and the finding of such homes, and

the supervision of the treatment of the children in them, should be the main business of the officers of such Children's Homes.

2. In cities and densely-populated districts there should be established by law Industrial Homes, where older neglected and dependent children, who are wandering about unprotected but not yet habitually vicious or criminal, may be detained and educated and set to work, and kept from bad influences until homes in private families can be provided for them.

3. Houses of Refuge for boys who are already vicious or criminal, or strongly inclined to be so, but are too young to come under the discipline of criminal law, should be established in or near all large cities, and should be accessible, when needed, by children from the country districts.

4. There should be established, under the care of the State, a Reform School for boys guilty of crime or thoroughly incorrigible, which shall have in view the principle of furnishing ultimately to each boy the safeguards of home influence and work, especially work on farms or in the country, cities being avoided for such homes.

5. There should be also, under State care, a Reform School for girls who are criminal or vicious, who should be educated and trained to habits of industry, and for whom homes in private families should be provided. The treatment and reformation of this class of offenders presents, perhaps, the most difficult problem with which we have to deal; but the sole hope for them, as for all the rest, must be found in the influences of home, daily work, and moral and religious teaching, by example as well as precept.

6. Reformatories should be established by the State for younger and less hardened offenders guilty of crimes of a high grade, of which the methods and discipline should be especially directed to the reformation of the criminal. The model reformatory of this character is at Elmira, in the State of New York; and the legislation of New York upon this subject is in advance of that of all the other States. Habits of labor, especially on farms, should be formed, and homes in the country obtained for such prisoners when discharged. The object should be to reform all who can be reformed.

7. Discharged prisoners should be aided in procuring work, or they will inevitably relapse into crime; and experience shows that this is a matter of serious difficulty, which demands the supervision of the State, as well as local sympathy and aid.

8. Habitual criminals, meaning thereby those who have been repeatedly convicted of crimes of a high grade, and sentenced to imprisonment therefor, should, on being discharged from prison, be under the supervision of the police, and if found to be without visible means of support, and neglecting or refusing to work, should be sent to a workhouse, and compelled to earn a living by their own labor. This would diminish crime and pauperism very perceptibly.

9. Every able-bodied criminal convicted and sentenced to imprisonment as a punishment for crime of any grade should be compelled to earn his living by labor, instead of being supported by the honest and industrious classes; and for this purpose workhouses should be provided by the State, with farms attached to some extent as may be found advisable. This would relieve both cities and agricultural districts, to a considerable extent, of vagrants and minor offenders.

10. In addition to the provisions very generally made, and which should be universal, for the care of lunatics, the deaf and dumb, and the blind, at the public expense,—there should be State institutions for the permanent care of idiots, and also similar institutions for the care of epileptics. Both of these dependent classes could do something toward their own support; and the expense of their maintenance would be no more than at present, while they would be better cared for, and the infirmaries relieved of their worst elements, and made, as they should be, comfortable homes for the aged and infirm; and the terrible demoralization and propagation of these classes that is going on in our infirmaries would be, in a measure, checked and controlled.

11. A Board of State Charities, or something analogous to it, should have a general supervision of all the penal and charitable institutions of every State, whose duty it should be to examine into their condition, and report the same to the legislature with suggestions as to their improvement; and there should also be in every county a voluntary Charity Aid Association, working in sympathy with the central Board, that shall visit periodically and be in sympathy with the officers of all infirmaries, jails, city-prisons, and other penal institutions and local public charities, and shall aid discharged prisoners in finding work. Party politics should be absolutely unknown in all such boards and associations. Good men of all parties, and women, should be interested in them; but fitness alone, meaning thereby intelligence, experience, and

high character, and not politics, should be the qualification demanded of every officer and employee in all public institutions. The public should wake up to the unmitigated evil of polities and political influences in the management of preventive, reformatory, penal, and charitable institutions.

Such are some of the conclusions to which experience has brought the Ohio Board of State Charities as to the reformatories and public charities of the State, and the direct treatment of the vicious and criminal classes in reference to the prevention of pauperism. In all cases, the best methods are in the long-run the most economical; and there is no better test of the civilization of a people than its treatment of its helpless and dependent, its vicious and criminal classes.

This committee beg leave to add a few further suggestions that seem to have a bearing upon the problem presented,—to wit, the prevention of pauperism.

1. City government is a municipal, not a political, organization. So far as it is political, it perverts its powers, and becomes an abuse. It should be no more political than the government of a bank or railroad. The fact that our cities have become to a great extent nests of partisan politics, and are governed largely for the benefit of professional politicians rather than the public good, has led to an increase of vice and crime and pauperism in our large cities, that is appalling. City government in the United States, at all events in our larger cities, is a failure; and city governments generally are in sympathy with the vicious and law-breaking classes, as far as they dare to be, for the sake of their votes. The statesman who can tell us how to govern large cities well, with universal suffrage, will render a service to his country that will rank with that of Washington who founded, and of Lincoln who saved it. If men shall fail to do the work, women may possibly be called in, as a necessity, to aid in purifying city governments. Cities are dominant in this government; and our most imminent danger now is from the vice and crime and pauperism to which their abominable misgovernment leads.

2. This is a great producing country, and if suffered to do so can supply with meat, breadstuffs, butter, cheese, iron, gold, silver, copper, cotton, petroleum, tobacco, and other products and their manufactures, the markets of half the world. What we need is access to these markets in our own vessels, in order to stimulate healthfully our agriculture, commerce, and manufactures. If, as

Lecky informs us, the union of England and Scotland, by opening up markets for the products of Scotland relieved that country of more than a hundred thousand paupers, what would a similar policy of opening up the best markets for all that we can produce in every branch of industry do for the people of the United States? This is a problem that calls for statesmanship, rather than politics.

3. Our laws for the distribution of the estates of deceased persons need to be remodelled. The principle of the French law is to limit the proportion of an estate which a testator can dispose of at his discretion by his last will and testament, and to distribute the residue of the estate absolutely among the children of the deceased, or other relatives standing in the same degree of consanguinity, equally, share and share alike. To this equal distribution of estates, more than any thing else, is probably due the fact that France is now a republic. In this country, as in England, this discretion of a testator is unlimited, thus favoring vast accumulations of wealth in single hands, rather than its distribution. Gigantic fortunes rapidly built up are no evidence of national prosperity, but rather of an unjust distribution of wealth; and such mushroom growths always imply a vast extent of surrounding pauperism. The people of the United States will not tolerate an aristocracy of blood, because they regard it as incompatible with the principles of their government; but an aristocracy of speculators, alike ignorant and unscrupulous, is growing up among us, which has all the evils of the other with none of its benefits. We call our government democratic, and it is so substantially, but the danger is that in large cities its character may be changed, and, between speculators at one extreme and tens of thousands of paupers at the other, the balance of power may be sold to the highest bidder, and democratic government degenerate into demagogism tempered by bribery. The tendency of our law, like that of France, should be toward a more equal distribution of wealth, and to discourage vast accumulations in single hands.

4. Christianity was declared by its Founder to be glad tidings to the poor. It has no meaning but to help the helpless, and especially those of them who are trying to help themselves. A Christian Church that will not aid in this work is an impertinence, and has no right to exist. To improve the dwellings of the industrious poor; to aid them in educating their children intellectually, morally, spiritually, and in habits of industry and economy; to

extend its care to the helpless, dependent, suffering, and even the criminal classes,—this is especially the mission of the Christian Church in all its branches; and it is in such works of charity and mercy, quite as much as in its preaching and praying and singing, that it is to manifest its true character. Our churches must not be so busy with their theology as to forget Christian charity.

5. Education in common schools should have in view habits of industry and economy, and the preparation of the pupil for some special trade or calling by which an honest livelihood is to be earned. There is danger that our schools, and especially our high schools, may unfit pupils for the hard work of life.

For the prevention of pauperism, then, we would recommend:—

1. That all criminals sentenced to imprisonment, and all habitual criminals, shall be made to earn their living by hard work.
2. That all reformatory and preventive agencies shall, as far as possible, rest upon the cultivation of home influences and education and habits of industry.

3. That a central State Board, assisted by local boards of charities, shall have supervision of, and be in sympathy with, all prisons, jails, preventive and reformatory institutions, and all public charities in a State, with a proper classification thereof.

4. Especially do we need, for the prevention of pauperism, good city governments, access to the markets of the world in our own vessels, a more just distribution of estates by law, working rather than talking churches, and habits of industry and economy as a part of education in all classes for and in some special trade or calling.

DEBATE ON PAUPERISM.

Dr. HOYT (of New York) urged the study of out-door relief. It should be so administered as to keep people out of poorhouses: it should be given promptly, and stopped promptly. The moment the feeling of independence was broken down, a line of permanent pauperism was started. Few persons who entered the poorhouse went out of it. Thoughtless administration of relief, and easy admittance to poorhouses, resulted in successive generations of hereditary paupers.

Mr. SKINNER (of New York) spoke of the importance of inculcating in the minds of children habits of neatness and industry. In his State there were industrial schools in which the element of punishment did not figure at all. They were not reformatories,

but they were institutions of prevention. Boys were taught mechanical and farming labor, and girls were taught every form of domestic work.

Dr. BYERS said that Ohio could not depend so exclusively, as New York did, on private charities; but many of the cities of Ohio had private charities for the care of children that had no superiors in the country. As to out-door relief, Dr. Byers protested against taking all charitable work out of the hands of good people. Out-door relief was just the thing for churches and individuals to attend to.

Mr. LORD (of Detroit) said that Michigan had taken all sound children out of the county poorhouses, and afforded them ample educational facilities and industrial training. These children were sent out from the institution at Coldwater to be adopted in families.

INSANITY AND INSANE ASYLUMS.

The Standing Committee on Insanity (Dr. Pliny Earle of Northampton, Mass., chairman) submitted four Reports and Papers; by Dr. Earle, by Mr. F. H. Wines of Illinois, by Miss Dr. Cleaves of Davenport, Ia., and by Mr. H. W. Lord of Michigan. Dr. Earle first read his Report, as follows:—

A GLANCE AT INSANITY, AND THE MANAGEMENT OF THE INSANE IN THE AMERICAN STATES.

BY PLINY EARLE, M.D.

In coming before you, pursuant to the appointment for the honor of which I am indebted to the Conference of Charities of 1878, I make no pretension of attempting to present for your consideration any thing new from that special field of labor in which I am employed, a comparatively small, although far from being an unimportant part of the broad domain which legitimately comes within the purview of the association here assembled.

It is proposed to occupy your attention with a very brief consideration of the general subject of insanity in the United States, contemplated as historical, contemporaneous, and prospective; to lay before you the skeleton of an argument by which, through the experience of the past, and a just comprehension of the present,

the subject may be placed in such a light as to render more easy the selection of proper methods of meeting the grave responsibilities of the future.

Fifty years ago, in 1829, there were within the limits of the United States but eight institutions specially devoted to the care and the curative treatment of the insane. Only four of them were State institutions; and two of these had been in operation but a few months, since both of them were first opened in the next preceding year. At about this time the people of the States began, more generally than theretofore, to take an interest in the subject of insanity, to recognize the fact of the measurable curability of the disease, to direct their attention to the condition of the insane, to perceive the inadequacy of provision for their suitable accommodation and treatment, and to discuss the importance of these questions in relation not alone to humanity, but also to the social compact and the governmental autonomy of the State.

The State hospital at Worcester, Mass., went into operation in 1833; and of all the institutions of the kind within the United States, the opening of which was within the half-century preceding the present year, it is the oldest. The time at which it began its work forms an important epoch in the history of the enterprise for the amelioration of the condition of the insane. Its superintendent, Dr. Woodward, was an enthusiast in the specialty; and although perhaps not more devoted than Dr. Wyman of the McLean Asylum, or Dr. Todd of the Hartford Retreat, he gave to the profession and to the world, by his detailed reports, vastly more than they of the results of his observation and practical experience. This information was widely disseminated, and gave to the popular movement in favor of the insane an impulse such as it had never before received, and the importance of the consequences of which, extending as they do to the present day, and as they will through all the future history of our nation, cannot now be estimated.

At a period not much later, Miss Dix began that long and laborious career of philanthropic devotion to the interests of the insane with which her name is indissolubly connected, and to which the annals of all history furnish no parallel. To those two persons, Dr. Woodward and Miss Dix, more than to any other two, are the insane of our country indebted for the awakened interest of the people in their behalf, and consequently for that

rapidity of practical action, manifested in the erection of asylums and hospitals for their benefit, which has in no other country been exceeded, even if it have been equalled.

In the course of the seven years from 1834 to 1840, both inclusive, no less than eight asylums and hospitals were opened for the reception of patients, thus doubling the number within the jurisdiction of the States, antecedent to the hospital at Worcester. Five of the new ones were founded by the States within which they are respectively situated. In the decennium from 1841 to 1850, inclusive, the number of institutions completed and put into operation was nine, of which six were founded by States; and in that from 1851 to 1860 it was no less than twenty, of which fifteen owe their origin to commonwealth provision. The remarkable increase during the decade last mentioned happily illustrates not alone the cumulative influence of agencies already mentioned, but of others which had been brought to bear upon the philanthropic enterprise. Not the least among the latter was the formation of the Association of Medical Superintendents of American Institutions for the Insane, an organization which, although sometimes accused of a persistent adherence to the methods of the past, uninfluenced by the results of experience, has nevertheless been a potent instrumentality for good.

The late civil war was, naturally and necessarily, a serious check to the multiplication of curative and custodial institutions, and measurably so to all the activities engaged in the beneficent undertaking for the attainment of the ends of which those establishments are the most important practical agents. Yet, notwithstanding this, the area of the enterprise has continued to expand, and the number of hospitals to augment until, at the present time, we have within our national borders not far from eighty,—a ten-fold increase during the lapse of half a century.

Of all those fifty years, the decennium from about 1837 to 1847 was, relatively, more important than any other period of equal length, in respect to the adoption of principles, the introduction of innovations, the establishment of methods, and the general shaping of the then future course of the enterprise. No similar period has been more remarkable for the enthusiasm of the professional men engaged therein, and none more prominent for the intellectual ability of those men. Doctors Woodward, Bell, Awl, Butler, Brigham, Kirkbride, Stribling, Ray, and McFarland—I mention them very nearly if not precisely in the chronological

order of their entrance into the specialty — were in active service each during a part of that decennium, and, at one period, all of them simultaneously. Such a body of men, acting at a time in which the enterprise for the insane was in its most plastic and impressionable stage, could not fail to leave upon it the lasting evidences of their ability.

But the imperfection, and consequently the fallibility, of human nature are such that the conduct of an enterprise, even though it be for charitable purposes, can no more be wholly free from mistakes than can the conduct of each individual life. And thus it happened, that, in the early history of our specialty in this country, the zeal and the rivalry of those by whom it was prosecuted gave to the public mind a false impression, from which sprang hopes and expectations that could never be fulfilled.

As early as 1827, by a combination of fortuitous and favorable circumstances, Dr. Todd, of the Hartford Retreat, was able to report the recovery of twenty-one out of twenty-three recent cases of insanity received into that institution. This remarkable result was reduced to a formula; and the *percentage* (92.3) thus derived from *less than one quarter of a hundred* of cases was published, and became more or less a criterion by which to measure the possibilities in *all* recent cases.

Dr. Woodward, at Worcester, adopted the fallacious method of calculating the proportion of recoveries upon the number of patients discharged, instead of upon that of the number admitted, and in this way had succeeded in reporting a percentage of $84\frac{1}{2}$ in 1836. Early in the following year Dr. Bell took charge of the McLean Asylum, and Greek met Greek upon the arena of the professional specialty. The decennium last noticed was soon entered upon, and the several superintendents above mentioned came successively into the lists. Before each of them stood the stimulating, the provocative precedent, of erroneous percentages; and around each of them was the competitive ability of his colleagues in the specialty. It is no cause for marvel, that, under these circumstances, a public opinion was formed upon the curability of insanity, too favorable to be sustained by the experience of the future. This opinion was enunciated by a few superintendents at an earlier date; but, considered as an established idea in the minds of the people, it was the fruitage of the decennium in question, more than of any other in the whole history of the past; and thenceforward it has very generally been claimed, that, of all cases

of insanity of less duration than one year, from seventy-five to ninety per cent are susceptible of cure. For more than forty years in respect to a few, and more than thirty years in respect to many, this has been the shibboleth of the superintendents of the hospitals, and of other writers upon the subject of mental alienation; and especially has it been depended upon as one of the crowning arguments in favor of the establishment of new hospitals and the enlargement of old ones, and of appeals to hesitating and reluctant legislatures for additional appropriations of money for the completion of unfinished ones, for which the purse of the commonwealth had already been taxed beyond the bounds of reason and of patient endurance.

But recent investigations have demonstrated the fallacy of the claim to a degree of curability so extensive. The experience of the hospitals during the last forty years has given to the statistician the results of a number of cases sufficiently large to form a basis of somewhat reliable general conclusions. In no single instance of the treatment of a thousand recent cases, has the recovery of even sixty-six per cent been reported. And in the most valuable and reliable statistics upon the subject, even the proportion reported was attained, in large measure, by the repeated recoveries of a few individuals from a multiplicity of attacks. The deceptive nature of the word *cases* was thus exposed. The superintendents reported the recovery of *cases*. The unprofessional readers of the reports, thoughtless of the technical use of the word, believed that *case* is equivalent to *person*, and, consequently, that the number of *cases* represented an equal number of *persons*. When the Bloomingdale Asylum reported, *without explanation*, six recoveries in one year, all of which were furnished by one woman, who was again brought to the asylum before that report was in print, and who finally died there, the public necessarily inferred that six different persons had recovered; and the same is true as applicable to the Worcester Hospital, when it reported, *without explanation*, seven recoveries in one year, of a woman whom it had reported as recovered no less than nine times in the course of the next preceding two years,—making sixteen recoveries in three years.

In order to impress the mind with an accurate estimate of the recoveries as annually reported at the hospitals, without analyzation or explanation, permit me to adduce a few further facts.

At the Northampton (Mass.) Hospital, five persons have recov-

ered thirty-three times, an average of more than six recoveries to each.

At the Worcester (Mass.) Hospital, one woman (the one above mentioned) was discharged recovered twenty-two times.

At the Bloomingdale Asylum, New York, prior to 1845, a woman was admitted twenty-two times, and discharged recovered every time; and for another woman (the one who recovered six times in one year) forty-six recoveries were reported in the course of her life, and she died upon her fifty-ninth admission; and those forty-six recoveries are to this day published, unexplained, in the tables of the reports of that institution, as available material for all persons who wish to demonstrate, by the absolute infallibility of mathematical figures, which "cannot lie," the proportion of persons attacked with insanity who are again restored, by recovery, to health and to usefulness. When the Bloomingdale Asylum had been in operation fifty years, it had treated 6,325 patients, and the whole number of recoveries was 2,796. This one woman furnished 1.66 per cent, or one sixtieth part, of all these recoveries.

At the Frankford Asylum, Pennsylvania, the aggregate of the recoveries of five persons was fifty-two, or more than ten recoveries to each person; and yet no less than three of those persons subsequently died in the asylum.

At the Worcester Hospital, in 1877, seven women had recovered ninety-two times, an average of more than thirteen recoveries to each; but nevertheless two of those women had died insane in that hospital; two of them were then present in the hospital, both of them insane, and one of them hopelessly so; and one was in another hospital, hopelessly insane. How admirably might those same ninety-two *recoveries* be used "to point a moral, or adorn a tale"!

At the Vermont Asylum, the report for 1878 says, "Of the number discharged, fifty-two recovered." Had the reporter stopped there, according to the invariable custom at that asylum for at least forty years, the unenlightened reader might reasonably have inferred that that number of persons, afflicted with insanity for the first time, had been sent to their homes and firesides permanently cured. But the reporter proceeds: "Twenty-eight recovered from a first attack, nine from a second, three from a third, four from a fourth, two from a fifth, two from a sixth, one from a seventh, one from a tenth, one from a fourteenth, and one from a fifteenth."

How wonderfully a little explanation may sometimes alter appearances! Twenty-four of those persons, instead of being permanently cured from a first attack, have already had an aggregate of one hundred and eleven recoveries; and, judging of their future by their past, many more similar recoveries are in store for them—and for the statistics of insanity.

At the New Hampshire Asylum, in the course of the official year ending April 30, 1878, there were thirty-five recoveries. Only fifteen of them were from the first attack. Of the other twenty patients, seven recovered for the second time, seven for the third time, two for the fourth time, one for the fifth time, one for the seventh time, one for the tenth time, and one for the thirty-fifth time. The twenty persons have furnished one hundred recoveries, to say nothing of what they will furnish hereafter. In the thirty-six years since the asylum was opened, the whole number of recoveries of its patients is 1,526. These twenty persons have supplied one hundred, or 6.31 per cent, of all those recoveries; and yet it is improbable that either one of them is permanently cured.

If we consider that these are the multiplicate recoveries of the patients discharged in only one year, and remember that every year will furnish its quota of them,¹ we may measurably conceive how very large a proportion of the whole 1,526 recoveries, since the hospital was opened, are of the same delusive character,—mere repetitions of the temporary recoveries of a comparatively small number of persons.

By such deceptive statistics as these, more or less of which are found in the reports of all institutions for the insane that have been in operation two or three years, the public mind has been seriously led astray. And it will continue to be thus more or less deluded, until all the superintendents shall conclude to follow the example of the few who, by such explanations as are given above, convey to the reader a clear understanding of the nature of the recoveries. The old way, still followed by the majority, savors

¹ Since this paper was read before the Conference, I have received the report of the New Hampshire Asylum for the official year ending April 30, 1879. The recoveries at that institution, in the course of the year, were twenty-seven; but only eleven of them were from the first attack. Of the remaining sixteen patients, four recovered for the second time, eight for the third time, one for the fifth time, one for the ninth time, one for the tenth time, and one for the thirty-sixth time. The sixteen persons have contributed ninety-two recoveries to the statistics of insanity.

too much of the *ad captandum* methods of a still grosser character, pursued to some extent in years gone by, by which the statistics were presented in such form, that, in the words of Dr. Bates, they were "received with wondrous admiration by that portion of the public who are better pleased with marvellous fiction than with homely truth;" and it tends to sustain and demonstrate the justice of the remark of the late Sir James Coxe, when he wrote of "that spirit of inflation which is a too prevalent characteristic of writers on this branch of medicine."

Of 1,061 cases of recent insanity treated at the Frankford (Penn.) Asylum, the proportion of recoveries was 65.69 per cent. But, by an analysis of these cases, it has been shown that the recoveries of *persons* were only 58.35 per cent; and that, of those that recovered, there were so many relapses that the permanent recoveries were but 48.39 per cent. Had it been possible to trace all the persons, and obtain their history, it is not at all improbable—it is, indeed, only too probable—that the number of permanent recoveries would have been reduced to forty per cent. These are the most reliable of all American statistics in regard to the results of treatment of so-called recent cases.

Of the true results of treatment of all the *persons* received into institutions, irrespective of the duration of the disease, the most valuable statistics are those for which we are indebted to Dr. Arthur Mitchell of Edinburgh, and the late Dr. John Thurnam, for many years superintendent of the Wiltshire Asylum at Devizes, England.

Dr. Mitchell informs us that, in the year 1858, 1,297 persons were admitted, *for the first time*, into the asylums in Scotland. Twelve years afterwards, in 1870, the intermediate history of 1,096 of them was ascertained. Of those 1,096, no less than 454 had died insane, and 367 still lived insane; total, 821, or 74.91 per cent insane. And 78 had died *not* insane, and 197 still lived *not* insane; total *not* insane, 275, or 25.09 per cent. In general terms, three-fourths were insane, and one-fourth not insane.

Dr. Thurnam, having obtained the history until death of 214 *persons* admitted into the Retreat at York, deduced from the results the following general formula: "In round numbers, then, of ten persons attacked by insanity, five recover, and five die sooner or later during the attack. Of the five who recover, not more than two remain well during the rest of their lives; the other

three sustain subsequent attacks, during which at least two of them die."

This formula, and the statistics from which it was derived, were published some thirty years ago; but in this country nearly all of the writers upon insanity have shunned them as if they were the fructified germs of pestilence.

Another mistake, or, more properly, a blunder,—a species of error condemned by politicians as more censurable than crime,—has been made in the enterprise for the treatment of the insane. From the initiation of that enterprise, the great ultimate object has been to provide, for all the insane requiring humane guardianship, adequate accommodations in either hospitals, asylums, or other places where such oversight and direction would assuredly be rendered. It was for a long time hoped to accomplish this object by well-equipped hospitals alone; and this hope was encouraged, and perhaps stimulated into expectation, by the constant iteration and reiteration of the assertion of the eminent curability of the disease. If ninety, or eighty, or even seventy-five, of each hundred of insane persons could be permanently cured,—and such was the impression given,—public benevolence would certainly properly provide for the comparatively small remainder, the more certainly so because it could be done at trifling expense. For these reasons the establishment of curative institutions, and curative institutions alone, was almost universally advocated, not merely by the medical superintendents, but by other interested persons as well. In these establishments the curable could be cured, and the incurable domiciled for life.

Then arose the not illogical argument, "The better the hospital, the greater will be the number of persons cured." But most unfortunately, not for the enterprise alone, but for the treasuries of States and the purses of the payers of taxes, the word "better" in this proposition was in some places practically interpreted "more costly." Under this rendering, the ambition of architects, the pride of commissioners and superintendents, and the universal extravagance of the people during the years next following the close of the late civil war, strongly fortified and assisted this argument; and the practical consequences are now apparent in that class of hospitals—professedly *charitable* institutions—which have cost from twenty-five hundred to four, or perhaps five, thousand dollars for every patient to whom they can offer a comfortable domicile.

As a direct consequence of the mistake and the blunder which have just been passed under review, the State of Massachusetts has recently opened, at Danvers, a hospital the cost of which, in appropriations and interest upon those appropriations, was, at the date of its opening, very nearly eighteen hundred thousand dollars; and yet that hospital, unless crowded beyond the number of patients for which it was designed, cannot accommodate the actual increase of patients within the State during the time occupied in its construction. Hence, notwithstanding eminent authorities have asserted, and other authorities have repeated it to the echo, that from seventy-five to ninety per cent of the insane are curable, yet during the last few years it has cost the Commonwealth of Massachusetts a thousand dollars a day, sabbaths included, to supply the shelter of a hospital (to say nothing of support) to the *mere current increase* in the numbers of its insane; and this cumulative cost will continue so long as she continues the construction of hospitals requiring an expenditure so exorbitant. It is submitted that no nation or state ever has been able to afford, and that no one ever will be able to afford, such expenditure for public charity from the public treasury until that millennial day in which all the ordinary laws of industry and trade, and all the present principles of the true philosophy of practical human life, shall have been changed. The wealthy may, and can, bear it; but its burden weighs grievously and oppressively upon thousands and tens of thousands in the humbler spheres of society. The life's blood of many is drawn, under the forms of law, in providing an ostentatious charity for a few, as "millions died that Caesar might be great."

The scientist, the political economist, the statesman, the philosopher, or the moralist, who recalls the comfortable simplicity in which, forty-five years ago, Drs. Wyman and Todd and Woodward lived amid the scenes of their labors, and who now beholds the contrast presented at some of the more modern institutions, and remembers that during the intervening period the average proportion of reported recoveries at the hospitals has diminished not far from twenty-five per cent, will not long hesitate in his decision whether the greater progress has been made in the direction of the perfection of science, or in that of the luxurious display which, in olden times, was a precursor of the decay and the downfall of the Roman Empire.

Such is a cursory view of the past. We come now to the

absolute present. At this moment, pregnant with the problems of the future, what is the knowledge hitherto gained from experience?

We have learned, firstly, foremostly, and most importantly, that, if reference be had to *persons* rather than to *cases*, — and in the relations in respect to which the subject is here discussed such reference is the only one of importance, — the proportion of recoveries from insanity is only about one-half as great as was formerly assumed as possible, and was hoped to be attained.

We have learned, that notwithstanding the general improvement of the institutions in the course of the last fifty years, and the very lavish outlay of money upon some of those most recently established, ostensibly in the hope of increasing the proportion of recoveries, yet, with reference to all the cases admitted into those institutions, that proportion has not been increased, but has actually diminished.

We have hence learned one important reason — perhaps the most important of all — for the uninterrupted and remarkable increase of insane persons among the people, in spite of the constant accumulation of hospitals, — a fact which has been regarded by many as a marvel, if not a paradox.

We have likewise learned that this continual augmentation cannot be arrested by the ordinary human instrumentalities. It has become an established fact, and must, apparently, be perpetual, unless the occult natural causes of the disease shall cease to operate, or shall become essentially modified, or unless the human race attains a degree of wisdom and of self-abnegation not hitherto reached, and abstains from or avoids those causes which are known and avoidable.

As, then, we look abroad over our country to-day, we perceive that notwithstanding the existence of about eighty public institutions, as well as a considerable number of private establishments for the treatment of the insane, and nearly all of them crowded beyond their capacity healthfully to accommodate, yet the number of insane persons unprovided with such protection and care is probably very nearly as large as at any former time. Thousands are with their families or guardians, other thousands are in alms-houses, some are in prison, and some are vagrants. The people who, in a large proportion of the States, have opened their hearts and their purses with unstinted benevolence and liberality in aid of this unfortunate class, are in some places impatiently suffering

under the conviction that their charity has been followed by no adequate return, and their generosity abused by that spirit of extravagance which has brought forth hospitals, the construction of which was apparently directed to a greater extent by human pride than by simple love of fellow-men. Men's minds are unsettled. The question of the best system of managing the insane is, as a broad and general proposition, far more emphatically an unsolved problem than it was thought to be forty years ago. Then it was apparently solved simply by the construction of hospitals: now it has become a mystery by the inadequacy of hospitals to accomplish the desired end. Statesmen, philanthropists, humanitarians, are to some extent adopting different methods in different States, all of them seeking a general scheme by the kindly operation of which every insane person requiring curative treatment, parental care, or custodial restraint, shall be suitably provided for, in such places and in such manner as will be effective, without transcending the true pecuniary ability of the people.

Standing, then, as we now are, upon the threshold of the future, what, so far as we are enabled to prognosticate, is to be the system of managing the insane in the undeveloped years before us? It is not improbable that some persons in this assembly are expecting that the committee which I have the honor to represent will, at the present time, answer that question by a plan of the machinery of such a system, so well digested, so matured, and so nearly perfect, that it may immediately be adopted by the States respectively. If such expectants there be, they will be disappointed. Their expectation denotes an enthusiasm based upon feelings too sanguine for the slothful pace of practical progress, in a scheme of such magnitude as the one in question. Systems in social science are mostly the developments of centuries, not the mushroom outgrowths of a night. It is impossible, at this time, to unify or to harmonize the diversity of opinion upon this subject sufficiently to adopt any system, how wisely soever it might be planned.

One thing, however, may be regarded as settled: The *Hospital for the Insane* is an established fact, a permanent necessity. The curative institution, furnished with all the munitions appropriate to the attainment of its ultimate object, cannot be dispensed with. It is alike the demand of humanity, of social and political economy, and of wise and prudent statesmanship. It has come.

It must remain. This granted, what shall be its dimensions? Unquestionably, other things being equal, that hospital is the best, the limits of which are so restricted as to enable the superintendent or physician in chief fully to understand the history and the current therapeutics of the disease of every patient. If, then, from one-third to one-half of the patients are curable, as was true of some, if not most, of the hospitals forty years ago, the whole number of patients should be limited to from two hundred and fifty to three hundred.

Shall the hospital, whether large or small, be of a definitely prescribed and unchangeable architectural design, either of ground-plan or internal arrangement? To this query it may be replied, that, in the construction of a curative institution of this kind, two general principles should constantly be kept in view. Not for a moment should they be forgotten or overlooked. These are, first, perfection of hygienic conditions, and, secondly, convenience and a judicious economy of daily practical working. These principles adhered to, why should the hospital, any more necessarily than the dwelling-house, be constructed upon an invariable model? Climates are not alike, customs and habits differ, and, fortunately, there is no uniformity of tastes. Wherefore should not the hospital, as well as nearly every thing else, be permitted to conform to this great diversity of circumstances and conditions? With no sacrifice of the principles above mentioned, the monotonous rigidity of the rectilineal corridor of the old hospital has been destroyed, and a more tasteful, agreeable, and homelike arrangement been substituted in England, and more recently in New England, by Dr. Eastman, at the new hospital in Worcester, and by Dr. Bancroft, in the additions to the institution at Concord.

The force of circumstances, the stern and inflexible logic of events, has, in most of the States, compelled the abandonment of the long-indulged hope of placing all the insane in those amply-equipped institutions which deserve the title, hospital. Twenty-five years ago no human prescience could foresee the mass of chronic insanity with which the States are already burdened, much less that greater accumulation which, as we now have good reason to believe, awaits them in the future. If, then, the asylum for the chronic insane, so long denounced in theory, must be admitted as a practical necessity, it happily may now be so admitted unaccompanied by that which was the greatest objection formerly alleged against it,—*the danger of imperfect oversight and inspection*. In

accepting the asylum, we demand that it shall be completely officered, and under governmental surveillance. These conditions will doubtless be granted. New York has already established a large one at Willard, and Massachusetts has a smaller one at Worcester; both of them placed, in those respects, essentially upon the same plane as the hospitals.

We have now reached another form of institution, which I shall venture to regard as an established fact for the future. The Willard Asylum, just mentioned, an establishment founded and fostered by the State, has, under the able management of Dr. John B. Chapin and an energetic board of trustees, made its way, through many difficulties, to a position of entire success. This institution is a happy union of the hospital and the asylum. It in a great measure preserves the advantages of the small institution with the alleged economy of support of the large one. It insures that constant official supervision of the chronic insane which prevents deterioration and abuse; and at the same time its central hospital furnishes all the effective curative advantages of those institutions which have been erected at a vastly larger cost. It is believed to be the true policy of all the larger States, as the demand for further accommodation increases, to group around one or more of their present hospitals buildings of comparatively cheap construction, similar to those at Willard, rather than to enlarge the number of their institutions with more costly edifices. Illinois, as I understand, proposes to construct the new institution at Kankakee upon this plan; and the Boards of State Charities in New York and Ohio, as well as a specially-appointed commission in Connecticut, have recommended the same for adoption in those States respectively.

It is greatly to be desired that the accumulation of the insane in public institutions should be restricted as far as possible, consistently with the spirit of the principles upon which those institutions are based. The best interests of the patient, on the one hand, and the protection of society from harm, on the other, are the only legitimate rules for guidance in this matter. But many patients are now committed to those establishments from whom society has nothing to fear, and whose best interests are promoted by such action simply because they have no suitable home. Hence it is a cherished idea with some philanthropists, that homes among the people may and should be found for them, thus preserving to as many as possible the inestimable privilege of life in the family.

Based upon this idea are the mediæval colony of the insane at Gheel, in Belgium, and the comparatively recently adopted practice in Scotland, of placing incurables, not to exceed four in any family, as boarders in the villages of the rural districts. But a colony like that of Gheel is believed to be an impossibility in this country, in consequence of the habits, the customs, in short, it may be said, the *genius*, of our people. Nor has the experiment in Scotland hitherto proved so successful as to offer much encouragement for a repetition of it in the United States. No efforts to extend the practice have recently been made in that country; and at Kennoway, one among the first of the villages selected for the experiment, the people have become so much dissatisfied that they have petitioned that the patients there domiciled be removed to the public asylums.

With all possible charity for human nature, it must still be acknowledged, that, as a rule, the dominant motive for the reception of an insane person, and that person a stranger, into the family as a boarder, would be the desire of pecuniary gain. It would be a strictly business operation, in which, primarily at least, neither philanthropy nor benevolence could be expected to any considerable extent to enter. This fact alone is sufficient to show that, if the method were adopted here, the patients must be constantly kept under the watchful surveillance of the State. Considered in regard to this question, the chronic insane may be divided into three classes: —

1st, The able-bodied men and women, in robust or fair health, who are willing to work.

2d, The quiet and harmless idiots and imbeciles, whose physical health is good, whose habits are cleanly, and who require comparatively little care.

3d, The imbeciles and the demented, of shattered constitutions and feeble health, of vicious habits, depraved appetites, and mischievous and sometimes dangerous propensities.

Of these three classes, provision in private families might more easily be obtained for the first than for either of the others. But in a public institution the work performed by a large part of these patients is equivalent to the cost of their support. If the State supports them, it is properly entitled to their labor. All those who could safely be placed in families can be intrusted, at the hospital or the asylum, with the liberty of the premises, and thus be made as comfortable and as contented as in the private family.

Hence more is lost than gained by placing these patients out as boarders.

For the members of the second class it would be more difficult to find positions; and if found it is improbable that, including the expense of governmental supervision, they could be supported as economically as at an institution like the Willard Asylum. Consequently nothing is gained here, because the persons in question are incapable of appreciating the difference between the family and the asylum.

The members of the third class are not proper subjects to be placed in private dwellings.

While, therefore, to us the prospect of essentially diminishing the number of the insane in hospitals and asylums by distributing them among the people is not encouraging, let it be understood that we perceive no serious objection to a trial of the experiment. Success sometimes awaits the efforts of that enthusiasm which is inspired by faith, even when the doubters least expect it.

Dr. Bancroft has suggested a method of distribution in families, which, in our estimation, presents a more favorable prospect of good results than the one just mentioned. He proposes that a series of dwellings upon the outskirts of the farm of a hospital or an asylum, or in the vicinity thereof, shall be placed each under the direction of a suitable farmer or other person, subject to the direction, or at least the oversight, of the superintendent of the institution; that patients, in such numbers as may be found best, shall here be domiciled, they and the directors of the house working upon the farm of the institution, or, if desirable, at other places. This method is a modification of the cottage plan; and the most important apparent objection to it is that the cost of support would probably be more than in an asylum like that at Willard.

In years gone by, some of the superintendents of hospitals in this country have recommended special institutions for epileptics, and others have objected to them. In some of the British asylums the patients of this class have for some years been domiciled in a department by themselves. The peculiarities and requirements of epileptics are such as to characterize them as a distinct class, for the care of whom a properly-adapted building would be eminently appropriate; and the great annoyance to other patients, arising from the paroxysms of their disease and from the excessively violent outbursts of maniacal excitement to which many of them are

subject, furnishes a strongly fortifying argument in favor of such provision. The movement in Ohio for ascertaining the number, the situation, and the condition of the epileptics of that State, is one that may well be followed in the other States. And as one of the immediate results of the investigation in Ohio was a recommendation by the Board of Public Charities of that State, that those epileptics be collected in a specially-adapted State institution, it is to be hoped that a similar result would obtain in the other States. If, in the smaller States, the number of these afflicted ones be insufficient to justify the construction of a separate institution, they could be cared for in separate departments of existing hospitals.

Such, it is to be hoped, will be a part of the established policy of the future.

We should come short of our duty if, on the present occasion, we should fail to call attention to an apparently gross inconsistency in the prevailing method of conducting the enterprise of benevolent oversight of the insane. In some of the States where the government of the commonwealth assumes a supervisory authority over all the institutions specially devoted to the insane, whether those institutions be corporate, private, or the property of the State, there is an utter failure even to recognize county, city, and township almshouses, in which large numbers of the insane are supported. The Argus-eyed watchfulness over the hospitals is offset by a mole-eyed disregard of a class of establishments which, to say the least, have not heretofore proved themselves especially worthy of confidence. The apparently exalted sympathy of the people, which surrounds the lunatic as with a protective atmosphere so long as he is in an institution fortified with safeguards against evil practices, deserts him the moment he enters the almshouse, in which those safeguards are comparatively few. As before intimated, the facts betray a most marvellous inconsistency, and would seem to throw a serious shadow of doubt upon the sincerity of that sympathy which, in various ways, blazons itself before the people whenever the public hospitals are in question. This glaring defect in the general supervision of the insane ought immediately to be corrected.

In conclusion, it may be remarked, that while it is impossible, at present, so far to assimilate opinions as to adopt any prescribed system of managing the insane, we look cheerfully forward to the improvements of the future. Experiments in diverse methods will be made in the time to come, as they have been made in the past.

We may confidently anticipate for these the survival of the fittest ; and he must be strangely wedded to his own opinions who would not acknowledge a readiness to approve whatever has been demonstrated by experience to be the best.

EVENING SESSION.

JUNE 10.

At the opening of this session, the subject of Insanity was again taken up, and Mr. Wines read his Report as follows, on

THE INSANE-HOSPITALS OF EUROPE.

The establishments for the insane which I had the opportunity of inspecting while abroad were sixteen, as follows : *In Sweden*, Konradsberg, near Stockholm ; *in Belgium*, the famous colony of Gheel ; *in Germany*, the hospital at Eichberg, on the Rhine ; *in France*, those of Vanves, Maréville (at Nancy), Clermont, Charenton, St. Anne (at Paris), and Quatre-Mares (near Rouen) ; *in England*, Bethlehem (in London), Hayward's Heath, Broadmoor, Banstead, and Cheadle ; *in Scotland*, Morningside (at Edinburgh), Cupar-Fife, and Lenzie. It would be presumptuous to draw too positive inferences from the examination of so limited a number of institutions. But even this hurried tour of observation afforded some insight at least into the more obvious points of resemblance and of variation in the construction, organization, and management of asylums for the insane in our own and other countries. The impressions made I design stating, in all modesty, as clearly and fairly as I am able to do.

To begin : The deepest and most lasting impression made upon the mind of one accustomed to the sight of the insane at home is that everywhere, irrespective of race, climate, or soil, insanity, in its essence and in its manifestations, is the same. The insane everywhere resemble each other in appearance and in their actions. There is not a delusion or hallucination, not a peculiarity of mind or temper, not a grimace or gesture, familiar to an American superintendent, which is not seen and recognized as an old acquaintance by the visitor to foreign asylums, from the extreme North to the extreme South of Europe. It naturally follows that the difficulties experienced in the treatment of insanity are identical, that similar differences of opinion divide experts on this subject into opposing groups, and the questions discussed are precisely the same. We Americans are apt to think that the

conditions of life for us and for other nations are unlike, that we have cut loose from the traditions and the experience of the older nations of the world, and that our destiny is to hew out for ourselves a new path through tracts of thought hitherto untrodden. Undoubtedly our isolated position, joined with the mixture of nationalities and the absence of reverence for aristocratic and monarchical forms of government, as well as the necessity for vigorous exertion in the subjugation of our prairies and our forests, and the creation of the purely material framework of society, stimulates to the utmost the spirit of original investigation, experiment, and invention. But it must forever remain true, nevertheless, that nature and human nature are essentially the same among all peoples and in all ages; that every question which can be discussed has been discussed; that on many subjects of inquiry no absolute conclusion is possible; that every possible course of action involves the attainment of certain benefits by the sacrifice of others in exchange for those secured; and that no violence is done to our originality by a thorough knowledge of and a proper regard for the labors of those who have preceded us. It would be the height of folly for us to ignore the experience of European nations, in order to pluck with intenser eagerness the fruits of our own mistakes.

The variations in the treatment of insanity, from an architectural and administrative point of view, in different countries, appear to spring, for the most part, from differences in their social condition, habits, and organization.

For example: in the matter of classification of patients in insane-hospitals. The fundamental fact of European social life is the existence of rank founded upon previous family history. Rank, in this sense of the term, is unknown in America. The distinctions in social position which exist among us depend rather upon the personal characteristics, attainments, and ability of individuals. No social gulf separates classes, and the same person rises or sinks, according to his varying personal fortune: at one time upon the top of the wave, he may be at another in the trough of the sea. Education and social experience of some sort are here well-nigh universal, and the great majority of our citizens have at some period of their career attained some measure of financial success and prosperity. Our only knowledge of pauperism, in the European signification of that word, is derived from our experience of the foreign paupers cast upon our shores. In

our hospitals, therefore, private patients and patients who are a public charge are not separated; they mingle in the same wards, and are subjected to the same régime. Our only principle of classification is convenience of administration, by associating together such patients as can best adapt themselves to each other, changing them, if necessary, from one ward to another, until they find their natural level. I am very far from asserting that this condition of society will be permanent; but while it lasts it offers certain great advantages in the medical and moral treatment of the insane. In Europe, on the other hand, class distinctions are so marked and permanent, that the private and pauper insane are cared for either in separate institutions, or in separate departments of the same establishment, and the classification adopted depends principally upon the amount paid for support. The distinction is apparent in dress, in diet, and in the privileges granted. This separation is sometimes carried to the point of allowing to a single patient a detached residence. The extreme limit of social exclusion, in its most absurd form, may be seen at Earlswood, the great English asylum for idiots, where imbecile children of aristocratic birth are, at the request of parents almost equally senseless with their unfortunate offspring, allowed private suites of apartments, private attendants, and a private table, to the great discomfort as well as injury of these victims of family pride.

Or, to take another illustration: the airing-courts of the French asylums are quadrangular enclosures, bounded on two sides by the two adjoining sections of the hospital building, and on the other two by high walls of brick or stone. These courts are usually laid out with gravel-walks, grass-plats, and flower-beds, in the most formal manner; and to an American or English eye they have a stiff, if not a prison-like, aspect. But they are not unlike the enclosed gardens of Paris; these walled yards are characteristic of the country, and to a native they must be rather attractive than otherwise.

I fancy that very much of the difference which exists between American and foreign insane-asylums, in respect of freedom and of occupation, could be traced to this same root,—peculiarities of national character and customs. It would be impossible to naturalize the French hospital in America, or the American hospital in France: yet the alienists of each of these two countries may learn much from those of the other.

The influence of climate upon architecture and upon manners is

very great. In the South of England the thermometer has an extreme range of about sixty-five degrees during the entire year, say from twenty to eighty-five Fahrenheit. In Illinois the range of the thermometer is not less than one hundred and thirty degrees, or double that in Surrey. We often have it over one hundred degrees in the shade, in summer. During the heated term of 1878, the average temperature for an entire fortnight, during the twenty-four hours, was ninety in the shade; during some of the hottest nights it was ninety at midnight. On the other hand, I have repeatedly seen it thirty below zero, and in very cold weather the mercury often does not rise as high as the zero-point for several days in succession. It is evident, without elucidation, that arrangements for heating which may answer admirably in England or France may not be at all suited to our climate, and that outdoor life with us must be much more restricted. This difference in climate is also an answer to Dr. Bucknill's criticism on what he supposed to be the overheated condition of our hospital-wards.

The presence of nuns in all or nearly all public institutions, in countries where the Roman-Catholic faith prevails, is a striking feature of those establishments. These devoted women offer their services to the government without charge, except their board and clothing, in order to spend their lives in a work of charity among the afflicted. They do all manner of domestic work, and act as nurses, attendants, and overseers in prisons for women, as well as in the female wards of asylums for the insane. Their gratuitous labor relieves the pay-roll, and to that extent vitiates any comparison which may be attempted between the cost of maintenance in other countries and those thus served.

On the subject of mechanical restraints, as a part of the medical treatment of insanity, I found that the same controversy exists between the English and French alienists, as between those of Great Britain and the United States. The French practice corresponds with our own, and appears to me to be carried even to a greater extreme. The English system struck me as the more humane and successful of the two. In all my visits to institutions for the insane, both at home and abroad, I have noticed that the moral treatment adopted depends upon the nature of the conception of insanity entertained by the officials in charge. In proportion to the degree of fear awakened by insane persons, is the severity of the means employed for their subjection. Those who see in an insane man only the strong animal nature and propensities, who

look upon him as a wild beast (as many ignorant persons employed as keepers of almshouses, or even as attendants in insane-hospitals, manifestly do), are impelled to confine him by chains and in cages. Those, on the other hand, who perceive in him the same humanity as in other men, distorted more or less by the perverted action of his diseased brain, but who recognize his susceptibility to the operation of the ordinary motives which govern human conduct, incline to dispense as far as possible with all merely mechanical contrivances for controlling him. The extent to which such agencies can be discarded depends largely upon the tact, the delicacy of perception, warmth of sympathy, and force of character, of the physician in charge. The rule holds good here as elsewhere: According to your faith be it unto you. Unquestionably the most successful superintendents make the least use of restraint and of seclusion. At the same time it occurred to me, in passing through the wards of the English asylums, as my eye rested on certain special cases of excitement, that the opposition to mechanical restraint may be carried to a point where it degenerates into empirical dogmatism; that the rule which forbids restraint in all but surgical cases is narrow and unjustifiable; and that the attempt to enforce a rule so absolute leads to evasions of it, as, for instance, by the use of the wet or dry pack, under the guise of medical treatment, although its real value consisted in the restraint imposed upon the movements of the patient subjected to it. Several superintendents said to me that they would use restraint, if their own judgment approved it; but in one instance, that of an insane woman who would not lie down at night, but slept in an erect posture, leaning against the wall, and bruised herself by repeated falls, when I suggested the employment of a crib-bedstead to secure for her the rest so essential to her recovery, I observed a very great hesitation to adopt the suggestion. In another, a superintendent pointed out to me a highly suicidal patient, who begged to have her hands tied; but he said that he declined to do it, for three reasons: first, because he desired her to contend with her insane impulse, as an exercise in self-control; second, because he did not want the attendant to relax any of her vigilance in observing her; and, third, because, if he once allowed himself to depend upon purely mechanical means to obviate the necessity for constant personal attention, he could not tell where the adoption of that principle would lead him. The remark was made to me, more than once, that the English alienists occupy precisely

the same attitude toward the camisole, that American superintendents do toward the shower-bath: they admit its value in certain cases, but nevertheless banish it from their institutions, on account of its liability to abuse. My visit to England convinced me that our superintendents are in error when they assert that the alternative is between mechanical, manual, and medical restraint, and equally in error in supposing that hypnotics are administered in larger doses or to a larger proportion of patients than in this country. As to the latter point, the very reverse is true. The principle of non-restraint is a single principle, it applies alike to all forms of restraint: and the English alienists may safely challenge a comparison of the number of doses of chloral or morphia administered on either side the sea. The dilemma, as stated by our American physicians, is not exhaustive, because it takes no account of physical exercise as a fourth alternative, which is the main reliance of the superintendent of an English asylum. "What would you do," I asked, "with that man, in a paroxysm of excitement?" pointing out a fellow, evidently a recent case, and highly maniacal. "Do?" was the reply: "put him in charge of two attendants, with instructions to walk him five or six miles and back; and if on his return he should prove to be still in an agitated state, detail two other attendants in their place, and repeat the dose."

The shower-bath is not banished from France: the use made of hydropathy in the insane hospitals of our sister republic is surprising, at least to a novice like myself. A complete bathing-establishment, in a separate building, is there an almost indispensable appurtenance of a well-regulated institution. One is shown long rows of copper bathing-tubs, of the usual pattern, except that they have copper covers, which are locked, with an opening just large enough to hold the neck; twelve or fourteen tubs in a single room, with a patient in every one, nothing visible of him or her except his head, and possibly his knees or his toes sticking up above the surface of the water. Sometimes a canvas cover is substituted for a copper one, and is buttoned to a row of small knobs on the sides of the tub. There the poor creatures sit in soak for hours, sometimes even for six or seven hours at a single stretch. Their appearance is indescribably grotesque. It is fair to say that the rules require an *interne*, a physician, to remain in this establishment, and superintend the bathing, to see that the water is of the proper temperature, and that the patient's pulse does not sink under the

operation, which is said to have a very soothing influence in many cases of acute mania. In another apartment is a large plunge-bath, lighted by a skylight. In another are douches, of the greatest imaginable variety; needle-baths, so arranged that the victim can be drenched with spray around the chest or loins or knees, or all together, and at the same time showered from above and also from beneath; hip-baths; iron cages, where the patient can be penned in, and fired at from the nozzle of a hose-pipe in the hand of an attendant: no practicable form of torture has been omitted or forgotten. An English gentleman told me that in one of the French asylums an offer was made to bring down a patient from the wards, that he might see the way in which the thing is done. In some establishments there are additional apartments for vapor-baths, medicated or not, according to the therapeutic notions of the practitioner. Turkish baths are not highly esteemed in the treatment of mania, but are thought to exercise a beneficial influence in melancholia and in menstrual difficulties.

On the other hand, the life of a patient in a French insane-asylum is much more nearly assimilated to that of the ordinary French citizen, than that of any English or American patient is to every-day life in these countries. In England the wards are generally organized more or less like those in the United States, though there is more variety in architectural construction than on this side the Atlantic. But in France, under the dominating influence of M. Parchappe (whose book, published in 1853, entitled *Des Principes à suivre dans la Fondation et la Construction des Asiles d'Alienes*, is to France what Dr. Kirkbride's book on the same subject is to our own country), there is a great sameness of construction everywhere apparent; and it is true there, as here, that to see one institution is virtually to see all. The French plan differs materially from ours, and in some important particulars is, I think, superior. Instead of attempting to make each ward complete in itself, they make each section complete in itself. The lower story is occupied by day, and the upper floors at night. Above stairs are the dormitories. On the ground-floor are the dining-room, with little tables arranged as in a Parisian restaurant or café; the smoking and reading room, with long benches, on which the patient can, if so disposed, stretch himself out for a nap, or he may, if he prefers, pass his time in playing cards or billiards; possibly also a music-room, with a piano, for those who take pleasure in instrumental music or singing. A covered portico,

next the airing-court, serves as a place for dining out-doors, in all suitable weather, after the national custom. The airing-court has been already described; it is specially attractive when adorned with little summer-houses, and lighted at night by gas. The patients go in and out at their own will.

With respect to sleeping-apartments, I was struck, both in France and England, as every one must be, with the much greater use made of associated dormitories than at home. Private sleeping-apartments are, no doubt, more agreeable; but they entail great additional expense for construction, and it is doubtful whether such expense for the chronic pauper insane, of whom so many are in our hospitals, is justifiable or wise. Abroad I observe, that, as a general rule, first-class private patients alone have single rooms. It is common to see twenty beds or more in one dormitory. At Hayward's Heath, in England, the ward for suicidal and epileptic patients contains forty-five beds; and two night nurses are employed to sit up with them,—a great help and relief to the superintendent. Several single rooms, with slat doors, open off this ward, on one side; and very restless patients are placed in them if occasion requires.

The use of common, instead of separate, dining-rooms, is also general. The reasons assigned for preferring them are, that there is then no smell of food in the wards, that the patients' meals are served hotter, that they enjoy the change from the wards, and that an opportunity is thus afforded to air the wards thoroughly three times a day.

I was surprised, in France, to see how little pains is taken to place guards at the windows of the upper stories. There are usually no iron bars whatever. Where there are any, they are very light, and are sometimes placed over only a portion of the windows and not over the rest. They are not regarded as a necessity, and their absence does not lead to any increase in the number of casualties.

Another equally surprising sight is the open fireplaces in the English asylums, commonly found in the wards and often in the dormitories. In one asylum, as I passed through, I saw an acute maniac, a recent case, sitting all alone in a private apartment, by the side of a blazing fire. Incendiary patients are of course closely watched, but little fear is felt of conflagrations. The grates are sometimes protected by locked fenders, of iron bars, but more often not protected in any way, or, if at all, only by a

light wire movable screen. At Cheadle I was shown the old fenders, which had all been removed, and were doing duty as chicken-coops. Even at Broadmoor, the great criminal-asylum of England, the gas is kept burning through the day for the accommodation of smokers, who in the English institutions are commonly permitted to light their pipes at pleasure, and smoke where they choose. The great advantages of open fires are, that they are less expensive than steam-heating, they are more cheerful, they obviate the necessity for forced or artificial ventilation, and they keep the wards much sweeter.

The principle of treatment illustrated by the instances just adduced is, that ceaseless personal vigilance and oversight is a better safeguard than any mechanical appliance or artificial rule of discipline.

The superior freedom of foreign institutions for the insane, in many respects at least, is shown in numberless ways. In close asylums the freedom is probably carried to the extreme limit of practicability, under what is known as "the open-door system," by which is meant that the wards are not locked during the day. The only asylums in which I saw this system in practical operation were Cupar-Fife and Lenzie, in Scotland. At Cupar I walked through the front gate and the front door, and into the wards, unannounced, and passed through first one and then another, until I came to the superintendent on his morning round, in the sewing-room. Every door was standing wide open. Dr. Brown, however, has two locked wards on the female side, and one on the other. The total number of patients present was two hundred and ninety-six; and of these sixty-eight only were under lock and key. Dr. Brown's defence of the system was in these words: "It is hard to sacrifice all one's patients to the wants of the worst class. If, out of one hundred and thirty-one men, twenty-two only are in a locked ward, not only do the one hundred and nine enjoy life better, but the twenty-two are better individualized, more closely watched, and from time to time liberated by way of experiment." At Lenzie there is not one locked ward. The superintendent carries no key; and all keys are taken away from the attendants on the male side, except, at night, dormitories are locked. There are no guards on the windows, either below or above. Yet, with five hundred patients, there are no more accidents than under a stricter rule, and Dr. Rutherford says that there are not so many. His position is: "Given a skilled physi-

cian and attendants, with removal of the patient from his home, and I do not care what the house is." The question of the amount of liberty possible is very largely a question merely of responsibility of the attendants.

At Cheadle, in England (an institution which has not attracted the attention on this side of the water that it deserves), under Dr. Mould's superintendence, an interesting experiment is in progress. The farm contains one hundred and forty acres, and the number of patients is about two hundred. Of these one hundred and forty are in the main building, and sixty in cottages. Three of the cottages are on the grounds; the rest are private residences, scattered around through the neighborhood, some of them at a distance of several miles. They were not built with any reference to the care of insane persons, but for the occupation of farmers and of gentry-folk, in the ordinary condition of people of their respective stations, and have been bought or leased for the use of the asylum. I visited every one of these cottages, except one at the seaside, in North Wales, which can only be reached by rail. I saw no restraint upon the freedom of any of the patients occupying them, except the presence and oversight of an attendant. The doctor and his assistants visit them daily, on horseback or in a carriage, just as ordinary patients would be visited by their family physician, and enjoy the change and the exercise in the open air. The cottage by the sea is kept as a place to which to send patients from the asylum or from the outlying cottages around, when they need recreation. The result of this experiment is entirely satisfactory to the superintendent, who says, if he had charge of six hundred insane people, he would not want hospital-accommodation for more than one hundred; and that he finds it convenient to remove troublesome patients from the wards, and transfer them to cottages, because such transfers quiet them, and promote the peace of the house.

Of Gheel and of Clermont, both of which are better known, I will not speak at length. Neither of them is a model for us, and Gheel least of all; but at both one sees how far, with proper classification and oversight, the freedom of the insane may safely be carried.

It may be accepted as an axiom in the treatment of insanity, that, in order to the maximum of liberty, there must be a minimum of idleness. Idleness breeds discontent, and discontent danger.

The amount of labor of which the insane are capable has been greatly underrated in America. At Morningside, in Scotland, with seven hundred and fifty inmates, of both sexes, one hundred and eighty men are at work on the farm, and fifty are engaged in mechanical pursuits, besides others who do odd jobs about the house. In a shed were one hundred and fifty wheelbarrows, piled in rows, for the use of patients in wheeling dirt and gravel, than which there is no better exercise possible for excited or demented men. The patients in this institution manufacture all the clothing, nearly all the boots and shoes, and do all the smith-work and all the printing, for the entire establishment. At Cupar-Fife, ninety out of one hundred and thirty male patients were usefully employed, seventy on the farm, and twenty in shops; and on the female side, in order to have work for patients to do, no washing-machines had been purchased. At Lenzie I saw patients in gangs working on the grounds, and in the stone-quarry, and upon the buildings, under the direction of their attendants who were working side by side with them, at the same employments. In this institution, insane men and women work together in the laundry and at the tailor's bench; and it may be added here, though out of this immediate connection, that at Cheadle there is a dining-room for patients of both sexes, where about twenty of them meet and chat together daily, at their meals, to the great enjoyment of both: there is no danger, where the supervision is thorough. At Cheadle, the number of private patients being large, and since it is impossible to compel patients of this class to labor, they are encouraged to engage in athletic sports, and a pack of hounds is kept for their particular benefit. At Broadmoor, to induce patients to work, the value of all labor performed by them is computed, and one and a half pence in each shilling is allowed them as a *peculium* to be spent as they may elect, subject to the superintendent's approval. Each patient has a pass-book, in which his earnings are entered, and the disposition made of them. This system is said to give satisfactory results, and the institution finds it profitable to continue it. Even in the Earlswood institution for idiots, the half-witted inmates are busy printing, lithographing, making matting, baskets, brushes, tinware, clothing, and furniture. They make all the furniture, clothing, boots and shoes, required by the establishment. If now we cross the Channel, we find in France workshops connected with every public asylum, where the inmates follow the trades to which they

have previously been accustomed. At Clermont Dr. Labitte assured me that of 1,622 inmates present that day, all had useful employment of some sort, according to their capacity, except one hundred and seventy, who were either epileptic, superannuated, violent, indecent, or sick. At Quatre-Mares, out of an insane population of seven hundred and fifty, more than one-fifth were engaged in useful labor.

It is not easy to comprehend the contrast in this respect between the European asylums and our own. The insane need employment; and the furnishing them with it diminishes or obviates the necessity for seclusion, restraint, and drugs. Idleness is one of their greatest perils. There does not seem to be, when one thinks about it, any sufficient reason why an insane man should be supported in idleness, at public expense, in America any more than in Europe. Is it not possible that we take away the domestic and farm work from our patients, by making such use of machinery as we do; and that the liberality of the State is drawn upon to furnish clothing and furniture ready-made, when it would be better for the insane themselves if they were required to help themselves by their own exertions?

In what has been said respecting foreign institutions for the insane, I have confined myself almost entirely to general observations, not of universal application; and any impression made upon the reader's mind is subject to correction, were it possible to go more into detail. I have said very little about special points of construction and management. I was much interested in the farm-buildings, so different from our own; in the disposition made of sewage, in drying-pits or by irrigation; in the apparatus for domestic labor, especially in the French kneading-troughs and baskets for baking bread, as well as the laundry-machinery, and the gas-ovens in use in England; in the Porter-Clark process of softening hard water by the addition of lime-water, and by an ingenious system of filters; in the remarkable water-tower at Quatre-Mares, built in stories, with a separate tank for each level; and in many other things seen and remembered, but which I cannot here describe.

Autopsies of insane patients are much more frequent than with us.

There is a growing sentiment of doubt as to the value of airing-courts. In England the walls of these courts are frequently sunk, in such manner that patients can look over them, and enjoy the beauty of the landscape, without feeling themselves hemmed

in by artificial barriers. At Banstead there are separate yards for the occupants of the several sections or blocks, but they are divided only by a low wire fence. In Scotland they have been practically abandoned.

The most offensive sight to an American who visits the French asylums is the mode in which seclusion is practised, even in the best of them, as at St. Anne in Paris. The cells for violent and excitable patients are arranged in a semi-circular building, with a hall on the inner and the cells on the outer side. Each cell has a small yard with a high wall, and these yards radiate from a common centre, like those seen in cellular prisons for criminals. Even more painful to me was the visit paid to the insane-hospital at Konradsberg, in Sweden, where I found fifty-eight patients confined in solitary cells, a large proportion of them entirely destitute of clothing. The total number of insane in the institution is two hundred and sixty.

A word now as to the number of insane in our country compared with England, Scotland, and France. To read the criticisms in some of our public newspapers, one would suppose that the State administration in Illinois had engaged in the manufacture of lunatics for purposes of private speculation. The injustice of such attacks is very great. We are simply endeavoring to take care of material which accumulates upon our hands more rapidly than we can make provision for handling it. With a population of nearly or quite three and a half millions, the estimated insane population is only four thousand, or one to every nine hundred. In this estimate are included not only the insane who are in institutions and upon the county-farms, but all who reside at home with their friends. Contrast our condition with that of Scotland. The population of Scotland is 3,360,018, or but little less than our own; and, according to the last report of the commissioners in lunacy, Scotland has over nine thousand insane, as follows:—

In royal and district asylums	5,449
private asylums	208
parochial	1,092
lunatic wards of poorhouses	644
private dwellings	1,493
lunatic department of general prison	55
training-schools	156
Total	9,097

The number of royal asylums is seven; of district asylums, eleven; of private and parochial asylums, six each; and of poor-houses with insane wards, fourteen. Scotland, therefore, has eighteen asylums for the insane, properly so called, while we have but four. The truth is that insanity in Illinois is as yet undeveloped, that it is increasing beyond the knowledge of any but those who are called to deal with it professionally or officially, and that no subject of legislation in the State requires more careful attention to avoid errors calculated to increase the burden which insanity necessarily entails upon the community.

The English commissioners in lunacy report that there were, on the 1st day of January, 1878:—

In county and borough asylums	37,763
registered hospitals	2,778
metropolitan licensed houses	2,069
provincial licensed houses	2,133
naval and military hospitals, and India asylum	360
criminal asylums	482
Private single patients	474
Total	<hr/> 46,059

In France there are one hundred and seven hospitals and asylums for the insane; and the movement of population for the year 1877 was as follows:—

Remaining Jan. 1, 1877	43,750
Admitted during the year	12,049
Total number treated	55,799
Discharged, &c.	10,773
Remaining Dec. 31, 1877	<hr/> 45,026

Of those discharged there were,—

Cured	3,080
Improved	1,429
Not improved	979
Died	5,285
Total	<hr/> 10,773

Of those remaining at the close of the year, there were,—

Supported by the departments	35,615
Supported by friends	9,099
Supported by the nation	312
Total	<hr/> 45,026

The population of France is 36,391,702. The ratio of insane in institutions to the population, therefore, is one to eight hundred.

These figures have an alarming significance for us. They are a warning and a prophecy. They show that lunacy in America is as yet in its infancy. If the amounts lavished on expensive hospitals, especially in the States of New York, New Jersey, and Massachusetts, had been husbanded for meeting the wants of the near future, a far wiser course would have been pursued. The policy of the State is to care for all its insane, which cannot be done unless the cost of caring for them is kept within reasonable limits. The day is past when our institutions for this class of sufferers could properly be called hospitals. They have not, indeed, ceased to be hospitals, but they have become asylums as well; and, with their change of character, certainly such changes are possible in their construction and organization as will simplify the task which the sentiment of humanity imposes upon us,—the duty of alleviating a sorrow which is for the most part beyond cure. This duty can only be performed, first, by reducing the cost of construction and maintenance to a point where, without injustice to those who pay that cost, the relief afforded may be extended and distributed equitably to all who require it; then, having found the true method of relief, the remaining step is to push forward, as rapidly as public opinion will admit, the work of providing, for every insane man and woman in the State, such care as the State can afford to give, to the limit of its ability, but not beyond it.

In addition to the prisons and hospitals for the insane enumerated above, I also visited several other public institutions, for the deaf and dumb, the blind, the idiotic, and the orphaned, which I would take pleasure in describing; but this report has already been extended to too great a length.

THE MEDICAL AND MORAL CARE OF FEMALE PATIENTS IN HOSPITALS FOR THE INSANE.

BY M. ABbie CLEAVES, M.D., OF DAVENPORT, IA.

In inviting the attention of this Conference to a consideration of the medical and moral care of insane women, we but act in accordance with a demand for reform in such care. From an actual knowledge of and experience with the class of patients above indicated, there has arisen on our part the belief that the time has come when a radical change should be made in this regard.

To us, the professional aspect of this question presents itself most forcibly; and to it, first, we will give consideration.

The subject of insanity is one that is commanding, more and more, the intention of intelligent, thinking people; and especially at the hands of the general medical profession is it receiving more careful thought, study, and investigation, than ever before. The cry, almost universal, for more hospital-room, has arrested public and professional attention, and inquiries are being made as to the why and wherefore of such need. At first thought it would seem that there was an alarming increase of insanity; but it has been demonstrated conclusively that such is not the case to the extent it appears, and that the seeming increase is due, not so much to a larger proportion of individuals attacked, as to the constant accumulation of chronic insane. Despite the building of almost palatial homes for the insane, of large sums of money expended in furnishing and carrying them on, the recoveries are in a decreasing ratio; and knowing that eminent men in the specialty emphasize, rather than otherwise, the curability of insanity, we are led to conclude that our insane-hospitals are not doing the work that was expected of them twenty and thirty years since. It would seem that with our more enlightened ideas concerning the nature of insanity, our more humane and scientific modes of treating the insane, we should witness an increased percentage of recoveries. Such is the history of other diseases, with the more advanced knowledge of their nature and treatment, and it is but rational to suppose that a like improvement should be manifest in the treatment of insanity.

The conviction is then forced upon us, that hospitals for the insane, while accomplishing great good, are not doing the work we should expect of them; and that they are to a great extent but places for humane care, restraint, and detention. Patients are herded together; individuals are lost sight of, and fail to receive that thorough and minute examination, that careful and intelligent inquiry into the condition of every organ and function, which would result in a correct diagnosis, and the meeting of all indications for treatment, whether medical or moral. Insanity is often but an expression of disease not primarily located in the brain, and especially is this the case with insanity in women, in whom, in a large proportion of cases, it is merely a reflex disturbance, capable of cure by removal of the primary cause.

We are thus brought to consider the medical care of insane

women, and to inquire if any means or measure of cure is neglected, and, if so, why; and how can such neglect be remedied. In answering these questions we have no idea that the measures which we shall suggest will prove Utopian in their results, or depopulate the female wards of our hospitals. There are, we are well aware, other good and sufficient reasons for the failure of curative capacity on the part of hospitals, but concerning which the scope of this paper prevents mention being made.

Fourteen years since, Dr. Storer felt and said, "There are signs that the great reform in the treatment of the female insane, for which we have so long been laboring, will at no distant day become accomplished." While he foretold a day that will surely come, it has as yet but barely dawned. The dawning, however, gives promise of a day which will result in untold good to insane women. For the past six years this subject has commanded our earnest and thoughtful attention; and the result of its consideration is the *ipse dixit* of no man nor woman, is not, we are sure, a theoretical air-bubble, but has arisen out of both a personal and professional knowledge and experience. To the following statement no one can fail to give hearty approval, viz.: "Neglect, systematic or customary though it be, of any means or measure that may tend to the cure of a patient, or class of patients, is in reality almost as grievous a wrong as a harm intentionally inflicted. Between omission and commission, there is at times but very little difference as regards the injury done." If we show, as we think we can conclusively, that such neglect exists, then is there being committed a great wrong: first, to many unfortunate insane women, by which their chances of recovery are in all probability lessened or entirely lost; and second, to an already overburdened commonwealth, in adding yet others for care and custody to her long list of chronic insane.

In times past it has been difficult to criticise this neglect, for it has not been altogether without good and sufficient reason. Much insanity among women is very intimately associated with diseased conditions peculiar to them; and, further, we believe that in many cases such diseases are the active causative influences which bring about the mental disorder. In confirmation of this statement we would adduce the opinions of men eminent in the specialty, and in psychological literature. From Isaac Ray we quote: "Unquestionably, abnormal conditions of the sexual organs has often a very large influence in the development of insanity in women." From

Dr. Bucknill: "There can be no doubt that uterine disorders constitute one of the most frequent remote causes of insanity in women." "The sympathetic connection existing between the brain and the uterus is plainly seen by the most casual observer," says Dr. Blandford; while Dr. Maudsley affirms that "affections of the uterus and its appendages afford notable examples of a powerful sympathetic action upon the brain, and not infrequently play an important part in the production of insanity, especially of melancholia." And we might quote from almost every author of the past or present to the same effect, while every physician of any experience is thoroughly convinced that such is the case.

And how can it be otherwise, when we remember that "by reason of the intimate connection and interaction between one organ and another as parts of an organic whole, disorder of any organ must conspire with other predisposing and exciting causes to produce insanity"? That local causes of irritation frequently re-act unfavorably upon the mind, we are all convinced from personal experience. But, despite an array of professional opinion which cannot be impeached, the special treatment indicated in such cases is wanting; and the result is the continuance of a morbid irritation until *diseased action* has been replaced by *diseased organization*, and incurable insanity—far worse than death—exists.

In emphasizing the fact that much insanity among women is due to diseased conditions peculiar to them, acting as predisposing, exciting, or continuing causes of the mental disorder, we would not be understood as saying that it has its sole origin in such conditions. Far from it; but insanity among women is so often associated with such diseases, that it is absolutely necessary, for the comfort and recovery of a large number, that they have the treatment indicated; for every other treatment than physical will prove useless as long as the organic lesion persists.

It is obvious, even to the unprofessional mind, that the first indication to be met in treating disease is to remove the cause, and insanity certainly is no exception; for the necessity of removing a cause to prevent or to cure its effect is as decided in mental pathology as in physical. The effort should be made for the *one*, even if the *ninety and nine* have no need of it; but that in at least ten or twenty-five per cent of cases, the exciting or continuing cause of insanity in women is pelvic in its origin, authorities admit.

We have no positive knowledge as to the relation of cause and effect, of the physiological changes and pathological conditions peculiar to women and their disordered mental states, only such as gynaecologists have been able to give us. The work can only be carried on in hospitals where insane women are kept. There must be added to our medical and surgical gynaecology a psychical gynaecology ere we come to any definite knowledge concerning many of the untoward mental conditions now observed in women. Authorities, in all times and places, have insisted upon the connection existing between them; but nothing has been done towards investigating the subject, and coming to a better and clearer knowledge of the nature and treatment of insanity among women. There seems to have been a willingness, at least in the majority of cases, on the part of those in charge, to let such women drift along either into recovery or incurability, as it happened. They have been treated as though insanity were a self-limited disease, and treatment of little or no avail.

We now come to consider the second part of our question. Why has such neglect existed? The field has been open to many and able physicians. Why have they not given to the insane women under their care every chance of recovery, and availed themselves of the opportunity to investigate and throw light upon a branch of medical science, which more than any other has failed of elucidation? Dr. H. B. Storer (see "Insanity in Women") has so forcibly and appreciatively answered this question, that we in reply quote from him: "The superintendent, as at present situated, cannot make such examination of a female patient, or pursue such methods of treatment, as are absolutely required for the relief of many forms of gynaecological disease, upon the existence of which, as we have said, her mental malady not infrequently depends. He is absolutely prevented from this alike by his regard for the patient's welfare, for his own personal reputation, and for that of his hospital. So constantly compelled to see the patient, he appreciates the importance, as regards other details of treatment, moral, &c., that he should retain her confidence, and escape her fears; he recognizes the danger lest an endeavor to arrive at a proper diagnosis of her disease should seem to the disordered mind only an attempt at improper and unpardonable liberties with her person, and, should she ever entirely recover her reason, be so represented to friends and to the community by her perverted and imperfect memory. . . . In this strait upon whom

is the superintendent to rely? Not upon his assistants, surely,— younger men, and often merely pupils, at any rate placed in the same relations as himself to the patient, the hospital, and the outside world."

It is in insane women, suffering from diseased conditions peculiar to the sex, that we are most apt to find those perversions of sensation and perception which lead them to misinterpret that which is done for them. Public confidence is already too easily shaken in our charitable institutions; and we cannot afford to add another possible cause for tremor, no matter how good the motive nor desirable the result. Some hospital-physicians have realized the difficulties in their way, their utter inability to afford all insane women under their care every facility for recovery.

One of the older Eastern superintendents, Dr. Bancroft of New Hampshire, has said, "No one would be more thankful than myself for better facilities than we are at present afforded for investigating and treating these cases." While in conversation with one of our Western superintendents a few months since, he expressed his conviction of the almost insurmountable difficulties in the way of proper treatment for a portion of this class of patients, and the need he experienced of suitable means to overcome them.

Having shown why hospitals, as they are at present officered, fail to overcome this neglect, we are brought to a consideration of the third clause of our question, viz., as to the remedy. What is it? Simply to place insane women in charge of physicians of their own sex. Until within a recent period, this has not been feasible, because so few women have been regularly educated as physicians. The time, however, has now arrived when this objection no longer exists, for there are a sufficient number who are eminently qualified to have the medical care of all insane women. Women have fully demonstrated their ability and fitness for the medical profession. They have made for themselves a place in it which, unchallenged, they occupy. Many of them have achieved success; a fair proportion have attained to eminence. Gynaecological practice is legitimately theirs. The experience of every educated woman in the profession will prove it. By them, if given the opportunity, the physical conditions of insane women, whether the cause, effect, or incident of their insanity, can with propriety be investigated and revealed, and psychical gynaecology, through their efforts, will become an unsealed book.

While, as more important, there will be offered to insane women

every facility for recovery, resulting, we have no doubt, in an increased percentage of recoveries, perhaps to many incurables a greater degree of physical comfort, or an alleviation of their mental condition. We must be distinctly understood, however, that these results may follow upon the efforts of women as physicians in our hospitals, only because men are practically debarred from entering this special field of labor. And, even if they were not so debarred, for the reasons already given, still should women have this work to do. As we have already indicated, their professional ability and skill, their power to succeed, have been fully shown; their fitness for this especial work is undoubted, and the propriety of its being given them to do, without question.

There are yet other reasons why the medical care of insane women should be in the hands of physicians of their own sex. Much of the knowledge of cases of insanity, requisite to a discriminating diagnosis, prognosis, and treatment, depends not only upon cognizance of physical symptoms, but upon that of many mental symptoms which are largely communicated by attendants, who are necessarily with patients more than the physicians are. There will be a greater degree of freedom on their part in communicating such facts to a woman than to a man, resulting in a more explicit knowledge on the part of the woman. There will also be that ability to see her patients at all times and in all places, as the privilege of a woman, which would not obtain in the case of a man, and which will necessarily give to the woman a more intimate knowledge of their condition.

Many things which would escape the observation of attendants would receive attention at the hands of the physician, and be of greater value, because the educated vision would see more appreciatively, and interpret more nearly aright, than the uneducated. She can approach her patients under all circumstances, and in critical cases, if necessary, superintend or personally administer remedial measures which may be indicated, which could not be done with propriety by physicians of the opposite sex.

During the hospital experience of the writer, extending over a period of three years, there was no time when the rules of propriety forbade, on her part, a thorough inspection of the female department, and personal inquiry into the condition of her patients, either collectively or individually. And the knowledge and insight obtainable by such liberty of action is oftentimes of very great value. Much information was obtained by the right of discovery,

which in the case of a man could only have been received second-hand. And, again, there are very often women as patients in insane-hospitals, who, from a sense of delicacy or diffidence, will refrain from revealing a condition of physical suffering upon which their mental or moral state may depend, but who would be glad of the opportunity to confide it all to physicians of their own sex.

In a committee-report on this same subject to the Pennsylvania State Medical Society, of which Dr. Hiram Corson, a member of the Board of Trustees of the Harrisburg Hospital for the Insane, was chairman, we find the following statement: "I could give instances of women, who, from disordered bodily functions, have been the victims of mental or moral delusions, and have suffered for months in insane-hospitals without having been once spoken to in relation to their physical health." But to pass from the medical to the moral care of insane women.

It is well known that women of the most marked native refinement, whose conduct has always been irreproachable, will, when from themselves they are "ta'en away," indulge in conduct and speech the most unseemly and ribald, and who would, were they sane, be equally shocked with ourselves at such action and language. Under these circumstances it is far more fit and seemly that none save women should enter their presence, no matter what the capacity. Not that all the consideration due them is not shown by officers of the opposite sex; but it is terrible for modest, refined women to recover from their mental alienation, remembering, *as they do*, that all their speech and conduct has been seen and heard by men. The recollection must be torturing, and does, we doubt not, cause many a blush of shame to mantle the convalescent's cheek. And, ere a womanly sense of propriety has asserted itself, there is all the more reason why none save a woman's ear should listen to confidences which perchance the patient herself may soon remember with regret and shame.

We feel confident that none of us but would vastly prefer that our mothers, sisters, and daughters should, if so unfortunate, have none save woman the sole witness and repository of all which in their unreason they have done and said. During the establishment of convalescence, ere the "untuned jarring senses" have re-assumed their natural sway; when in the untried future all seems so strange, uncertain, and vague; when perplexities and doubts arise; when dark forebodings o'ershadow all; when their relations to others seem so unnatural and unreal; when the absence of all

they hold most dear begins to be noticed and felt,—then do these women feel the need of some womanly friend, into whose ready ear they can pour all their doubts and sorrows, and meet with that kindly comfort, counsel, and sympathy which only a true woman can give them.

Who can be better fitted for this office than the womanly physician? Who brings, in addition to her special knowledge of their disease, a woman's quick insight, clear intuitions, kind and sympathetic nature, the being like with them, and capable, therefore, of entering into and appreciating many of their thoughts and feelings? That "*the grief that does not speak,*" whether real or fancied, "*whispers the o'erfraught heart, and bids it break,*" is not less true in many cases of disease than in health; and the individual who can invite the fullest, freest confidence will be the one best calculated to do the patient good. The superintendent's hands are full—not always with the medical and moral care of his patients, but with the duties of steward, farmer, civil engineer, architect, and general executive officer. Women are not apt to make confidants of men as young and inexperienced as are most assistant physicians. The matron, like Martha, is careful and troubled about many things; and the result is—because of the lack of a suitable person in the place of confidential friend and adviser—a loss of moral influence which, if properly directed, would be of incalculable benefit.

So far as my experience goes, women in insane-hospitals very much desire and would appreciate the presence of a physician of their own sex. It is not worth while to answer objections to this measure which may arise. Objections on physical grounds are not worth the paper it would take to write them on. If women are able to be attendants and supervisors in hospitals for the insane, then are they equally able to be physicians there. As to the question of delicacy between the lady assistant and her associates, we would answer that it is much more easy for a woman, educated in medical science, to communicate necessary facts and compare notes by means of technical terms than it is for a score or more of attendants to communicate such facts in the ordinary phraseology at their command. Is the delicacy of an educated female physician, to whom at any rate science but presents itself in the abstract, to compare with the greater question of the delicacy of female patients, who, because of disease, are deprived of native reserve, modesty, and refinement? We most assuredly think not.

The mental and moral fitness of women for the management of insane women is beyond cavil. Their fidelity and devotion to their profession cannot be questioned. Their ability to successfully manage and control similar institutions in all their departments has been proven. We may instance the Woman's Prison at Sherborn, Mass., and the Woman's Prison and Girls' Reformatory in Indiana, both most successfully managed by women. This special field is not without its pioneers. In the Worcester Hospital, Mass., a woman was long and successfully employed as assistant physician. In March of this year (1879), a lady was appointed, by competitive examination, assistant physician at the Cook County Hospital for the Insane, Chicago.

Six years ago this spring, a lady was appointed assistant physician by the Board of Trustees at the State Hospital for the Insane, Mt. Pleasant, Io. We quote from the reports of that institution the following statement as indicative of the regard in which the movement is held there: "Experience has confirmed the conviction that a female physician, with proper qualifications, can accomplish a vast amount of good in such hospitals." The most eminent alienist in Pennsylvania, and one long connected with a hospital for the insane, has on several occasions requested eminent female physicians to take charge for a brief time of patients in his institution, to gain their confidence, and to ascertain their physical condition, so that a proper treatment could be instituted. That man we honor. His confession of his powerlessness to act in such cases we regard as weighty proof of the desirability of the measure which we advocate.

At this writing, a bill for the employment of female assistant physicians in all the State hospitals for the insane, to have the care of female patients under the superintendent, which has been before the New York legislature, has passed the lower body of the assembly by a vote of seventy-five to twenty-four. Pennsylvania, however, moved first in this matter, and is even more progressive than her sister State. The Pennsylvania State Medical Society, one of the oldest, most influential, and perhaps most conservative, medical societies in the country, instigated the movement there by a memorial to the Pennsylvania legislature, which was also indorsed by the Board of Trustees of the Harrisburg Hospital for the Insane—a vote of eight yeas to one nay being had. The bill before the Pennsylvania assembly aims to place the female departments of its insane-hospitals under the *sole* charge and

superintendence of women. It has at this time passed the lower body without a show of opposition, and its friends are hopeful of its passage in the senate. The latter plan seems to me far the best; but, although we live in an age when the world moves, we may not hope at one bound to accomplish what may yet take years of evolution and growth, but the coming of which is inevitable.

In a recent legislative investigation of the insane-hospital at Kalamazoo, Mich., regarded as one of the best-managed in the United States, the committee in their report made several practical suggestions for legislative action, one of which we quote, viz.: "That at least one female physician be appointed to act in the capacity of an assistant physician in the female department."

The employment of female assistant physicians in hospitals for the insane need cause no change in the management, need involve no extra expense, but will, we are confident, if the right women are selected, and given *time* and *liberty* to do for insane women all that exists to do, result in an increased efficiency and an enlarged curative capacity on the part of our hospitals. Strong in our convictions, sure of our purpose, we make this plea in behalf of the thousands of insane women throughout the world, believing that it is practicable, humane, and just.

To Dr. H. B. Wilbur of New York and Dr. Hiram Corson of Pennsylvania we are much indebted for reports and information concerning the recent legislative action had in this matter in their respective States.

Since writing the above, we have to note the passage of the bill before the Pennsylvania legislature which empowers the trustees to appoint a female physician to have charge of the female patients of hospitals for the insane, and directs that they shall report to the trustees.

HOSPITALS AND ASYLUMS FOR THE INSANE:

SHALL WE DISTINGUISH BETWEEN THEM, AND PROVIDE ASYLUMS AT LESS EXPENSE?

[Read by Henry W. Lord of Detroit, June 10, 1879.]

It is usual to use the words "hospital" and "asylum" interchangeably. They have several shades of meaning in common; both are defined as places of shelter, protection, and refuge. The word "hospital," however, includes in its meaning curative meas-

ures for its inmates more distinctly than does the word "asylum." Refuge, shelter, protection — these pertain, with fewer exceptions, to the idea of an asylum. An asylum may or may not afford curative processes, so far at least as its name implies. A hospital is, in its essential idea, a place where medical and surgical aid is rendered, and where cures are expected.

Most receptables for the insane in these days are in the nature of hospitals and asylums combined, if we except the jails and poor-houses, many of which are more like menageries for torture and exhibition.

Like steamboats, railways, and electric telegraph-lines, hospitals and asylums for the insane, on the present scale, are comparatively modern institutions; that is, modern as to Europeans. If we go back far enough, to Egyptian, Phœnician, and Grecian days, skipping the mediæval and later centuries entirely until the last, we find that in remote times enlightened views of insanity were entertained; intelligent and humane treatment was taught and practised, first by the learned priests of Egypt, and later by the great philosophers and physicians of Greece. In the former country, according to earliest records, *melancholics* were brought in considerable numbers to the temples. "Whatever gifts of nature or productions of art were calculated to impress the imagination were there united to the solemnities of an imposing superstition. Games and recreations were instituted. The most voluptuous productions of the painter and sculptor were exposed to public view. Groves and gardens surrounded these shady retreats, and invited the distracted devotee to refreshing and salubrious exercise. Gayly decorated boats sometimes transported him to breathe, amid rural concerts, the pure breezes of the Nile. In short, all his time was taken up by some pleasurable occupation, or by a system of diversified amusements enhanced and sanctioned by a pagan religion."

This process of treatment passed from the priests of Egypt to the learned and accomplished physicians and philosophers of Greece. There, in treating mental diseases, "the early morning was divided between gentle exercises and reflection, music, and study; then conversation, followed by gymnastic exercises, and a simple and temperate diet; public interests were discussed, walking for exercise followed; a cold bath was had, then reading, music, and reflection concluded the day." This mode of treatment was not possible in all cases, but wherever it was practicable the method was continued for many centuries.

During the dark ages that immediately preceded our own, the insane, when cared for at all, were received into the monasteries, and again committed to the care of the priests — this time of the Christian religion, but whose views of insanity were worse clouded than those of the ancient superstition in the earliest times. A false notion that madmen were possessed of the Devil made it seem incumbent on those who held such an idea to resist the Evil One with all possible energy through the unfortunate person in whom he had assumed shape and habitation for the time being. "Idiots and imbeciles such as were harmless were permitted to wander about homeless and naked, the sport of the wanton and the wicked. The frantic and furious were chained in loathsome dungeons, and sometimes exhibited for money. The monomaniacs were, according to circumstances, regarded with reverence or horror, in either case superstitious. If supposed to be possessed of demons, they were subjected to priestly exorcism, or destroyed as wizards or witches. If thought to be inspired by the Deity, they were constituted leaders of various fanaticisms."

The hospitals were generally attached to monastic institutions. The monks, who often inflicted scourgings upon themselves where they even suspected the influence of the Tempter, not unnaturally treated his known and declared presence and possession of the distressed lunatic with great severity. Among the Franciscan Brothers the insane inmate received ten lashes a day for his regular allowance, and on this were based such other proceedings as could be devised against Satan; among which were chairs of restraint, bleeding with the lancet, whirling chairs revolving one hundred times per minute, confinement in iron cages suspended over tanks of water, with occasional submersion therein. This frightful treatment, with other worse things unmentioned, was continued later than the monasteries by men of all creeds in Europe; and barbarities little less censurable have existed among ourselves within the lifetime of persons now present, and have not yet been fully discarded.

Chains, loathsome cells more offensive than those in which domestic or wild animals are kept, are the not uncommon accessories and tortures that lunatics meet with in almshouses and other places now, and, it is to be feared, in several States here represented.

In the large hospitals and asylums for the insane at the present day, both in Europe and America (all honor to Philip Pinel, a French physician at the beginning of this century), we have in a

great measure, and with great improvements, returned to those scientific and humane measures practised by heathen philosophers and physicians three and four thousand years ago. The influence of music and quiet recreation, such moderate employments as are practicable, such pleasant social enjoyments and intercourse as can be decorously managed; dancing, pictures, lectures, games, educational and religious exercises, a generous diet calculated to restore physical strength, and great care to protect the patient from all mental frictions and disturbances, especially such as lead in the direction whence his madness comes,—these constitute the main features of treatment.

We are now, in many of our States, making the most liberal provisions for the insane; we should seek to have our measures also the most enlightened. Expensive hospitals of magnificent exterior and costly finish throughout have been built, supplied with every requisite suggested by science, and conducted by men of special reputation in their several departments. Legislatures have voted, and the people paid, the cost both of structure and of administration with open-handed philanthropy, prompted by the hope of recovery for those upon whom had fallen the saddest of all afflictions. Meantime the mental malady goes on without abatement or diminution; and, if its increase is not in greater ratio than that of population, there is at least the appearance of it. Great institutions are no sooner ready for patients than instantly filled; and probably no State, however willing, has yet succeeded in meeting the demands upon its liberality put forth in behalf of its wards thus afflicted.

We submit that it is quite time to look closely into the *phases* as well as nature and condition of the disease for which we have to provide, and into the exact effects we seek not only, but may reasonably expect, to accomplish, and see if we are intelligent in the means provided; or, if we may not profitably dwell a little upon the distinctive uses of hospitals and asylums, more accurately restricting our use of the words to what they really mean; and, if asylums and hospitals be not convertible terms, perhaps we may discover that while we want and must use both, we do not want, or at least cannot afford, the two in one. In the examination we may find that we are incurring too much expense in cases comparatively hopeless,—we use the language with painful sensibility,—a class that comprises more than four-fifths of all the patients in our great monumental establishments.

There are at least four States which have institutions for the insane costing \$2,000,000 each, or nearly that; and most of the States have such establishments, some of them several in each, costing from \$500,000 to \$1,500,000. Take all that have been built within the range of prices indicated, and the cost will be found to average at least \$2,000 per patient; and the average cost of maintenance and attendance, when all items are included, is \$5 per week, or about \$7.31 per week if six per cent interest on the money expended is considered, as it should be, it entering, as a rule, into taxation from year to year.

Let us now look into the condition of an average first-class institution costing, say, \$1,200,000, and containing 600 patients at an expense of \$7.31 per week, or \$228,072 per annum, and see in what condition we shall find the inmates, and with what prospects of cure to encourage and justify this outlay.

Every person will see at once that if there is no doubt of cure in any instance, then the expenditure, if prudently managed, is abundantly justified, and the community would respond to it with hosannas. On the contrary, if it might be fairly said that there is no prospect of cure in any case, then the expense incurred, especially for buildings, would seem to be in excess of the necessity, which would appear to be limited to mere asylum purposes, involving such comfortable provision for hopeless misery as humanity might contemplate, despairingly indeed, but without reproach. As neither of these propositions is true, we may approximate the merits of the question by endeavoring to form an estimate of the proportion in which the several classes exist, and if the hopes that may be entertained concerning any of them, or the individuals composing them, may justify a greater expenditure than may be reasonably undertaken, *pro rata*, for the whole. If so, then let us see upon what general principles they may be distinguished; and how, without a formidable outlay, that shall be overwhelming and create re-action among tax-payers against its exercise and purpose, we may provide for the whole number with a liberality that shall be sufficient and commendable, though it may not, as to the whole number, assume imposing monumental form in the sense to which we have referred. Though it may appear that our elegant and costly hospitals are none too good, nor even sufficiently numerous, it may also be apprehended that some of the States have gone as far as they will in that direction, while at the same time their great institutions are filled full, and from three-fourths to seven-

eighths of their capacity occupied by apparently incurable inmates, leaving no room for the admission of recent and hopeful cases.

In the instance we have supposed, if the hospital or asylum for six hundred patients has been in operation for a number of years, its population will be about as follows: The medical superintendent will inform a State commissioner that he has about seventy-five or eighty patients whom he regards as curable, and about five hundred and twenty-five nearly or quite without encouragement. He will add that as to at least two hundred and seventy-five of his patients the malady had progressed from two to ten years before they came under proper treatment — and that partly for the reason that his hospital had no room for them, it having been for some years, as at present, for the most part full of chronic cases. Among the two hundred and seventy-five so circumstanced, a sanguine expectation of cures would be limited to eight or ten in the hundred. Of the remaining three hundred and twenty-five he will have received about sixty within from one to three months after the disease became manifest; and the expectation of cures in such cases is, say, seventy per cent. There will remain two hundred and sixty-five whose malady had continued more than three months and not exceeding two years. Of these he hopes thirty per cent will recover. This will aggregate about twenty-five per cent of cures on the whole, or about one hundred and fifty cases of expected recovery.

That is about the way the figures run as the patients come and go; but of the six hundred in at any one time and carried along as average population, $12\frac{1}{2}$ per cent, or seventy-five cases in all, will, with tolerable accuracy, represent the probabilities of cure. Among the six hundred involved in this great calamity, there will be found at least fifty epileptics, with scarce a prospect of cure as to one of them. These give the medical superintendent more anxiety than all the rest, and are more disturbing to the household: they should never be sent to such an institution, if possible to provide for them otherwise. Nearly all have suicidal or homicidal tendencies. "Lunatic and sore vexed," one is described by St. Matthew: "ofttimes he falleth into the fire, and oft into the water." There was in that instance a conspicuous cure, and there have been but few others.

There will be found from thirty to fifty patients whose malady is euphoniously called dipsomania, many of whom, though wildly, often violently or dangerously, insane when committed to the insti-

tution, are cured within twenty-four hours, and permanently cured if permanently restrained; but they rarely stay long before means are taken to enlarge them, and they in a few weeks or months are discharged cured, some of them perhaps several times each, and their cases go to make up the averages of recoveries in official reports. As to real recoveries among these by asylum treatment, an eminent medical superintendent of New England says that in his many years' experience with them, all the recoveries could be counted upon the fingers of one hand, not using all the fingers.

In the afflicted community of six hundred, the victims of vicious practices will equal in number both the epileptics and the intemperate combined. There will be at least one hundred of them. These, the most miserable, disgraced, and degraded of all, are generally so far demoralized, both in body and mind, before they are sent to an insane-hospital, that nothing of much value in human form can be reared upon the ruins they bring; and as a class, in estimating recoveries, they have to be almost excluded from hope.

If there is, in the State where our asylum is supposed to be located, no institution for the feeble-minded, we shall find among the six hundred at least forty who are in a kind of semi-idiotic condition, besides such of these as shall be included in the classes already mentioned. These are, of course, to be added to the incurable inmates, so far as probabilities go.

There will also be at least one hundred elderly people suffering various degrees of dementia, in many cases the product of exhausting labor, mental or physical, complicated with affliction and disappointment; the product not unfrequently of poverty and old age, altogether accumulating burdens under which the limbs totter and the mental tissues give way. We behold them through our tears, and feel obliged to deny ourselves expectation of relief until "after life's fitful fever they sleep well." There will also be twenty-five or thirty patients of various shades of chronic disease, who have come from other institutions, or have been several times before in the one under consideration, to be added, as probably incurable, to those whom we have mentioned.

These several classes are of the obvious and palpable cases apparently without remedy. There is among those not so specified also a large number that will not recover,—sufficiently large to justify the supposed remark of the superintendent, that he had in all but seventy-five or eighty patients, out of the six hundred, who

might be deemed curable. While it is probably true, that, of the six hundred under treatment at any one time, not more than ten or twelve per cent will recover, it is possible that of the whole number received in any one year twenty-five in one hundred may be cured; but as there would be no way of designating with more than approximate certainty, even after some weeks or months of treatment in hospital, which particular patients would make up the twenty-five per cent, we will include with them fifteen per cent more, making forty patients in each hundred to be selected from among the most hopeful, and to be regarded as curable, though we know from experience and observation that but twenty-five of them, if so many, will really recover.

Now, upon a classification such as this, which will be liable to some mistakes, and conceding that hopeful cases will justify all the expense that is necessary to effect restoration, and claiming also that for chronic and obviously hopeless cases we may not be able, without neglect of the former, to afford to them more than a proper degree of expense for asylum purposes, let us see how the matter will stand.

We propose to select, after ample time for study of the several cases in hospital, forty patients from each hundred received, making two hundred and forty out of six hundred, in whose behalf we will continue the rate of expense contemplated, — \$2,000 each for hospital building, and \$7.31 each for maintenance, — thus leaving sixty in each hundred, or three hundred and sixty of the six hundred, to be supported on a different scale of expenditure, though with equal solicitude, and no less attention to their comfort. We shall find, if the scheme is practicable, that such an abatement of expense may be made, on the whole, as would enable some of our States, Michigan for example (and we are proud of her charities), to provide well for all of her insane, at an expense now appropriated to one-half of them.

In our supposed institution, built at a cost of \$2,000 per patient, we are supporting, as before stated, six hundred inmates at an expense of \$7.31 per week, \$228,072 per annum. Now we maintain that the three hundred and sixty patients can be generously provided for at an expense of \$400 each for building purposes, and, say, \$3.25 per week for maintenance, or, including interest on building, *pro rata* as in the other case, \$3.72 per week each, or \$69,638.40 per annum for the whole. The two hundred and forty maintained, as before supposed, at \$7.31 per week, will

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cost per annum \$91,228.80, making a gross expenditure for annual support of the six hundred of \$160,867.20, against \$228,072 as at first supposed, and diminishing the annual cost on the whole number \$67,204.80.

On the building, as between hospital and asylum, if we so distinguish them, we should save at the outset the difference between \$2,000 per patient and \$400 per patient on three hundred and sixty, which would amount to \$576,000, and in all reduce the outlay \$643,204.80. This places the State so interested in a position to support its six hundred patients, giving to all in whom the most enlightened examination could ascertain the hope of recovery—that is, to two hundred and forty—all the facilities that money and science can provide; and to those for whom obviously no curative measures are available—the remaining three hundred and sixty—such comfortable and alleviating asylum and support as will do all that is possible for them in the light of Christian charity and under its obligations, at an expense for building of little more than half of that in the case first supposed, and for annual support at a saving of \$67,204.80. The amount saved on the building would build another hospital for two hundred and eighty-eight persons at \$2,000 each; and the money saved on the maintenance of the three hundred and sixty—\$67,204.80—would support one hundred and seventy-six, nearly one hundred and seventy-seven, patients at \$7.31 in the additional hospital.

Now we assume that there has been unnecessarily expended, on the institution for the six hundred patients, enough money to build a hospital for two hundred and eighty-eight patients at \$2,000 per patient, and to meet the annual expense of one hundred and seventy-seven of its inmates at \$7.31 per week; or to build two additional asylums for the chronic insane, of a capacity for seven hundred and twenty inmates each, and to meet the annual expense for maintenance of 347½ patients in one of them. We do not expect that all who hear this paper read, or to whom it may come, will agree with us. We do not know that all Boards of Charities will agree with us; and we feel confident that the association of medical superintendents will not agree with us. If what we have to say should deserve their attention at all, they would probably in their next convention resolve unanimously against it. We differ with them with what they will perhaps term the confidence of ignorance; and we certainly desire that our unprofessional view may be valued by them and others only for what it may be worth.

There is no class of men whom we honor more than the class of physicians who are specialists in regard to insanity. No more devoted men wait upon the distresses of our race than these. While in the discharge of their duty they find among their patients no two cases alike, yet to them they are, professionally, all alike in interest and solicitude. Professional fidelity to each is a point of honor with them, and they desire no divisions founded on probability of recovery, or the contrary; like the painstaking accountant, to whom the right-hand figure in the summing up of long columns, though a cipher signifying comparatively little, is of as much consequence as the figure on the extreme left, or any other that may stand for thousands or millions, and he cannot conceive the possibility of bestowing upon the one less expensive care than upon the other. We applaud the professional fidelity and *esprit de corps* of the medical superintendents.

Familiar with insane-asylums for quite a number of years, we have been attentive to their administration, have endeavored to study their purposes, and estimate their value. We discern in the public mind evident signs of re-action as to the lavish expenditures that have been made upon them; and while in most States they are at present but little more than half sufficient in capacity, yet, at the supposed necessary cost, they are likely to fall further behind the necessity than to overtake the occasion for new institutions. When we have said to the people of Michigan, "With all your liberality in provision for the nine hundred insane in your two asylums, you have still nine hundred in the poorhouses, and among the people, for whom you have no place," we have heard the reply, "It begins to appear to us that the State will by and by have to consider the preparation of asylums for such of us as remain sound."

In our supposed instance of the six hundred, we have first selected all that could be ascertained to have the least prospect of advantage from the most expensive appliances and treatment. As to the three hundred and sixty that remain, our estimate provides for every six persons \$2,400 for domicile, and \$1,160.64 for support. This would be a charitable provision by the State, and a better one than most families in health among the well-to-do working people can provide for themselves.

Three-fourths of all the insane brought to our State institutions are pauper or indigent, yet we would not in the least degree abridge even the pauper's chance of recovery on account of his poverty.

He is more likely to be poor because he is insane, than insane because he is poor, though cases of that kind are frequent. We would provide for the three hundred and sixty at less expense than for the others, for the reason that, aside from making them comfortable as possible, we can do them no good. Cases will occur among them, perhaps two or three in one hundred each year, where it will be found that mistakes have been made; and such will be transferred at once to the hospital, to encourage the rising hopes that have unexpectedly dawned before them. It is also sadly true that among the two hundred and forty there will also be found errors to correct; and at least fifteen in each hundred will have to join the three hundred and sixty, as in one after another the light of reason is hopelessly obscured, or dies out.

The classification proposed would not of necessity prevent the continuance in hospital of the treatment of such pay-patients, as they are termed, as have money or friends to defray their expenses. It would also open to those who are not indigent, and yet not wealthy, and who have chronic insane relatives, to choose between hospital and asylum expenses.

Let us, in closing, glance again at the three hundred and sixty chronic cases set apart for the asylum. Our classification will not be found precisely correct, perhaps, in any one institution; but it will, with sufficient accuracy for illustration, indicate the average condition. Two thousand dollars per patient for building will not be true of all our asylums and hospitals, but it will be true of those in quite a number of States. Or if it were not, and they were all like Michigan, where the expenditure for cost and equipment is about \$1,500 per patient,—or a little less than four times, instead of five times, what would be necessary for the chronic cases,—then our illustration will hold good to that extent, which is sufficient for argument.

It will be, with praiseworthy humanity, alleged that it is a painful thing to consign insane persons to a class of institutions that some of the patients will know to imply the serious nature of their malady, and thus crush out a spark of hope that may have been left. So cruel a procedure ought of itself to dismiss the subject from consideration. There is weight in the objection, and it cannot be fully answered or obviated. It, however, has less importance than appears at first sight, and under the plan of division advocated in this paper it very nearly disappears.

As to the fifty epileptics, they ought not to be in the hospital at

all, but otherwise provided for, independent of all other considerations. As to the dipsomaniacs, their confinement there was absurd from the first; a hospital is not necessarily a reformatory. The one hundred victims of vicious practices were, as a rule, rendered hopelessly worthless before they were sent, and are not entitled to, and cannot be benefited by, better care than can be provided at the reduced expense. No complaint can be made in behalf of the forty feeble-minded; for they are, of course, incapable of restoration in either place, and are generally happy if well housed and fed. The twenty-five patients who have already been in and out several times are not likely to be disadvantaged or discomfited if changed from hospital to asylum. The one hundred elderly patients do not, as a rule, expect recovery, nor is it expected for them. They will usually find themselves more comfortable with the quiet class of patients with whom they would be placed in an asylum, than with the more demonstrative inmates of the hospital.

However this may be, we should be influenced in a measure by the alternative, and the alternative is this: If we do not, by building asylums at moderate cost, relieve our expensive hospitals, they will rapidly fill up, as they are now nearly filled, with chronic and hopeless cases, to the exclusion of recent and hopeful patients, until the latter also become chronic and hopeless.

At the close of the reading of the Papers on Insanity, and at intervals between them, some debate took place; but no full report of it was preserved. The Reports of Dr. Earle and Mr. Wines, and the Paper of Mr. Lord, were received with special favor by the Conference; and one delegate remarked, that, if the facts here brought out had been known in his State five years ago, they would have saved the tax-payers a million of dollars.

SECOND DAY'S SESSION.

JUNE 11.

The Conference met at ten A.M., on Wednesday, June 11, Gen. Brinkerhoff in the chair. Prayer was offered by Right Rev. Bishop Gillespie of Michigan. Dr. Byers then read the opening report, as follows:—

PUBLIC BUILDINGS FOR THE DEPENDENT AND DELIN-
QUENT CLASSES.

FOUR REPORTS FROM THE STANDING COMMITTEE.

The Chairman of your Committee on Public Buildings congratulates himself and the Conference upon the number of special reports on the general subject which he is able to lay before you this day, and several of which you will hear read by the authors. Mr. C. S. Watkins of Iowa will open with a general report on "Poorhouses and Jails in the North-western States;" Gen. Brinkerhoff of Ohio will follow with a special report on "County Infirmary Buildings;" Rev. Augustus Woodbury of Rhode Island will treat of the proper construction of State prisons, with special reference to the admirable new prison in his own State; and Dr. Walter Channing of Boston, who takes the place of Dr.ourt on the Committee, will present a report on a subject of which he has practical knowledge,—the construction and management of buildings for the criminal insane. All these reports will be brief, but together they will occupy so much time, that the rest of the Committee (Messrs. Sanborn, Robinson, and Gillespie) will content themselves with a few preliminary remarks on the general subject.

The tendency of experienced men and enlightened communities has for some years been in the direction pointed out by Mr. Watkins, of classifying the public dependents, and sending them to establishments specially designed for each class, instead of mingling or composting them all together in great receptacles. This classification can be done more easily in thickly-settled communities; but at the same time the temptation to mingle together those who should be separated, and the harm which they can do each other when thus mingled, are both greater in populous communities and the neighborhood of great cities. The remarks of Mr. Watkins, therefore, are quite as applicable for admonition in many of the Eastern and Middle States, as in the North-western, however different may be the circumstances in the different localities.

In regard to county and district almshouses, some very useful remarks from a variety of sources will be found in the report of the New York State Board of Charities for 1878, lately issued from the press in Albany. Copies of this portion of the report will be laid before the Conference by Mr. W. P. Letchworth, Presi-

dent of the New York Board, by whose research and diligence the information there brought together was collected and made available to the public.

Among the documents will be found a letter by the chairman of this Committee, which may be cited as containing his views on certain aspects of the question. In this letter Mr. Sanborn has intimated that one part of the State's duty toward many of those who now find their way into almshouses is *to keep them out*, instead of sending them in. In the Eastern States, within the past ten years, this disposition to remove persons from the public establishments, and diminish their population instead of increasing it, has been growing stronger and more out-spoken. In consequence of it Massachusetts has inaugurated a system of caring for the sick poor in their homes; and New York and some other States have been withdrawing the children from almshouses and even reformatories, and placing them out in families.

There are limits beyond which this policy cannot go, but they have not yet been reached anywhere within our knowledge, and we would recommend to the Conference that it be pursued with energy wherever it is practicable. Under certain restrictions it can be applied to prisoners and insane persons, with whom our establishments for those classes are now so much crowded.

For the Committee,

F. B. SANBORN.

CONCORD, May 1, 1879.

I. POORHOUSES AND JAILS IN THE NORTH-WESTERN STATES.

BY C. S. WATKINS, OF DAVENPORT, IA.

Of the wide range of topics included under the heading of "Public Buildings for the Dependent Classes," I have selected that branch, the discussion of which will, I think, be of most interest to the people of the newer Western States; and I have perhaps aimed to keep more particularly in view the needs in this line of the State from which I am to-day here as an attendant at this Conference,—Iowa. My topic thus chosen is

POORHOUSES AND JAILS IN THE NORTH-WESTERN STATES.

Very little that is new can be said on the general subject of these institutions. Its consideration in all the various features has received the attention of law-makers and philanthropists, in

all civilized nations, during the past two hundred years; and the exhaustive analysis of every detail bearing on these matters, more recently made by the Boards of Public Charities of the different States, particularly in Massachusetts, New York, Ohio, Illinois, and Michigan, and the information given in the annual reports from these eminent bodies, have left little that needs further investigation or exhibition. All therefore that is hoped for in this essay is, to show compactly the conclusions indicated as the results of the experiences in older communities, with the view that the newer settled States, and particularly those west of the Mississippi, where no specific systems have yet taken firm hold, may possibly thus be assisted to avoid the errors elsewhere existing, and profit, with both economy and humanity, by the experiences of their neighbors.

It is probably correct to say that, just as the seaboard States have in many instances, apparently without reflection, adopted European habits and legislation, errors included, so, in the West, we have a tendency to copy from the East, from whence so many of us have migrated, without reflecting that the many and material differences in the natural resources, industrial pursuits, and social organizations of the almost opposite regions, must inevitably affect the operation of customs thus transplanted.

Thus in the agricultural districts of England, where all were tenants or laborers dependent directly or indirectly on the aristocratic landlord, who there really was "the lord of the land," the original almshouse was simply a cleanly and well-appointed place of refuge for the indigent and worn-out laborer or villager, who, like his father and grandfather before him, had been a lifelong worker in that locality. Amid such conditions, the almshouse system was a success; but when such success there induced the establishment of similar arrangements in this country, where the majority of our chronic paupers are merely the thriftless and dissipated *débris* of our large cities, the attempt was not only a failure in itself, but was expressly injurious, by diverting the public treatment of such cases in an erroneous direction. Speaking more explicitly: in the agricultural districts of the Western States, which description probably includes seventy-five per cent of the area and population of every State west of the Alleghanies, the almshouse system proper has failed, because here the honest indigent classes, for whom it was chiefly intended, and by whose labor its maintenance was expected to be aided, are, as a rule, subject to only

infrequent and temporary seasons of distress, and then are best cared for by our system of "outside relief" which involves but little loss of self-respect by the recipient and his family, and also leaves them free to assist themselves by such occasional employment as may offer.

Our almshouses, thus being of little or no benefit to the class they were designed to aid, have been turned from their intended use, and have now almost everywhere come to be regarded as receptacles to which may be assigned every thing in the line of vice, crime, and misfortune, that has no other resting-place; the result being that these institutions have thus become mere legalized cesspools or reservoirs for the reception, and, it may be added, the cultivation, of the most repulsive features of our social defects. It was well to change the name, and call them "poorhouses."

As these may be said to differ from each other only in degree and extent, a description of one may, for our present purpose, serve for all; qualifying this, however, by the reminder that we are, for the reasons given, now only considering the situation and conditions existing in States and counties west of the Alleghanies, leaving the thickly-settled manufacturing and commercial districts of the older States to adjust their burthens of this nature by their own peculiar systems and establishments. As already stated, the West cannot always judiciously or profitably adopt Eastern customs.

The average number of inmates of a poorhouse in one of the Western States, in counties not including, or in the vicinity of, a large city, seldom exceeds twenty-five or thirty, exclusive of the pauper insane who are sent there whenever the State hospitals are too much crowded for their reception, as almost constantly is the case. Of this average we generally find the sexes in nearly equal numbers. The individual details usually include two or three foundlings or orphaned children; two or three half-grown boys and girls of feeble intellect, and accompanying low grade of moral perceptions; two or three adults with constitutional antipathy to manual labor, and, in support of their claimed inability, making much ado about that "pain in the head," or "in the back," which permits them to walk or sit erect but a few minutes at a time, and this generally occurring only about the usual meal-hours. It is, however, noteworthy that these cases are almost invariably of the "male persuasion." In our pauper inspections we seldom find a chronic case of female laziness. In fact, the women in a poorhouse

are the only pauper workers. To all these add a few adult imbeciles and cases of destitute old age, these last being chiefly of foreign birth, and coming to this country only when nearly worn out by field-labor at home; and add also, with more or less frequency, cases of homeless boys and girls waiting till the county officials can "bind them out" to respectable farmers; also cases of friendless men and women, forced by temporary or chronic illness to seek this refuge, for the county poorhouse is also the county hospital; and add the almost constant sheltering of several of those social outcasts of either sex, who, without committing any decidedly criminal act, yet constantly pollute the very atmosphere of every place they occupy.

Now consider that the overseer, or "steward" as he is generally styled, of this institution, is seldom selected with any reference to his humanity or his moral qualifications, his abilities as an economist being the leading requisite; and that he is obliged to devote a large portion of his time to the farm-management, leaving the household and inmates to the cultivation and development of their own "true inwardness," and we have complete the picture of the American poorhouse as it stands to-day in almost any of the settled rural counties of the land,—a model school for the vicious training and moral contamination of every person, old or young, and not already passed beyond such influences, that may be brought, even temporarily, within its atmosphere.

Our criticisms of the county jail system will run in an almost exactly parallel direction with those of the poorhouse.

In the ordinary county jail we find criminals serving their respective terms of imprisonment for the usual minor offences, occupying apartments in common with persons awaiting trial or held on suspicion; all mingling together without restriction at the meals and in the common halls and corridors. I once visited a county jail in which were a proven murderer; two professional burglars; a respectable young man who had been detained several months awaiting examination by the grand jury on a charge easily shown to be unfounded; a boy of fourteen, who was accused of larceny by a fellow-clerk who was afterwards discovered himself to be the real thief; a man of feeble intellect, held on an accusation made by a saloon-keeper by whom he had been first robbed and then assaulted, and finally disposed of by a false charge of some crime, which caused his being held for examination until the regular quarterly meeting of the grand jury: all these having

the same general accommodations, and in constant familiar intercourse.

In the women's ward of this jail was a noisy, repulsive wretch, in the last stages of a life of dissipation, filling the air with blasphemies and vulgarities; and with her a young woman, not long previously a respectable operative, now held for some petty offence, and already seriously demoralized by her jail associations. To a young woman or girl whose moral principles have already been weakened by the friendlessness and temptations of a homeless life, such associations are simply certain ruin; and under similar circumstances the experiences and results of the life of "Margaret, the mother of criminals," have doubtless been innumerable repeated.

It is customary, when these defects in our poorhouse and jail systems have been brought to public notice, to dispose of the subject by expressing the opinion that "the county officials ought to fix things somehow;" "the grand jury ought to look into the matter;" "the steward of the poorhouse ought to be talked to severely;" "the court ought to lecture the sheriff," &c.; and the critic then feels that he has put himself right on the record, and is free from any share of the disgrace.

It is proper, however, to say right here that much improvement really has been accomplished by the organization of local visiting-committees of volunteer citizens; but still the trouble "will not down," and it is certain that radical changes or entirely new systems must be adopted.

Very little of the defects of the present systems can fairly be attributed to the officials controlling these institutions. They find the system and practices already established, with a set of laws quite minutely specifying the duties of the various county authorities.

From my own official experience and observation as a visitor, I have long since adopted the opinion that a thorough and general revision of the existing systems is the only efficient remedy; and I further believe that such revision and resulting reform can be easily and economically established. In surveying the approaches to such an improvement, it is immediately apparent that we must be prepared to cut entirely loose from many of the customs that, as already shown, we have adopted from our Eastern friends; and we must keep constantly in view the principle that our plans should consider the results to society in coming years,

as well as the benefits to the public welfare of the present. It has been well said that "by purifying the moral atmosphere of our penal, charitable, and reformatory institutions, we are protecting the material interests of ourselves and descendants. By rescuing juvenile offenders, and preventing the spread of the evil influences of the already degraded, we are making the social pathways and personal safety of posterity more pleasant and secure."

In all the departments of vice and crime, there is no more fruitful cause of increase than the influence which individuals of this class exert on each other, each being to his fellow respectively an active impelling force in the direction of his own tendencies. In all measures looking to the treatment of social defects, the prevention of such contamination should be a leading aim. If these dependents and delinquents are to be at all systematically cared for, a proper regard for the public welfare, present and prospective, as also the chief point on which the hope of their own thorough or even partial reformation rests, requires that they should be separated into properly classified divisions, to the effect that neither rank can be further debased by the evil influences of those in a lower grade. Therefore no system designed for the proper treatment of these evils can be complete without including distinct places of custody, or accommodation for every class coming under the care of the public authorities.

Workhouses for convicted offenders in the minor degrees of crime; especial accommodations for parties awaiting examination or trial; reformatories for juvenile offenders; asylums for destitute children and for destitute young persons awaiting opportunities for employment; almshouses as originally designed, for the indigent aged, the permanently disabled, and other chronic or transient paupers, not vicious or criminal, as also for homeless strangers needing only temporary rest and shelter: and each of these institutions divided into properly separated accommodations for the sexes,—it is evident that the principles of humanity and the objects desired will be satisfied by a no less comprehensive system than this.

But in submitting these propositions we are immediately met by the fact that the average county seldom, at any time, has enough of either of these classes to warrant the maintenance of especial accommodations for each separately. And this really weighty objection leads us at once to the consideration of

THE DISTRICT SYSTEM,

by which, under legislative authority, two or more adjoining counties could unite in establishing "union" institutions. There might be, for instance, a union or district workhouse, in which short-term imprisonments could be filled; a union district almshouse for the care of permanent and friendless destitution; and similarly with other institutions needed.

The district system, to be complete, also requires the establishment *by the State* of one or more, as may from time to time be required, State almshouses, suitably located at easily accessible points, and prepared for the reception and care of all cases of chronic vicious paupers sent from the various counties throughout the State, with also accommodations for the pauper incurables that so materially add to the overcrowding of the hospitals for insane, and consequently in the same proportion diminish the curative efficiency of those institutions. It is not necessary to go into details. It is evident that if the district system thus outlined be put on trial, its plan admits of almost infinite variation, combination, expansion, and modification, from time to time, as the increasing population of the respective counties makes necessary.

It is proper, though perhaps superfluous, to add that no originality is herein claimed for these suggestions. In several of the States, notably in Michigan, and, I believe, also in Pennsylvania, the district system has been repeatedly advocated. Massachusetts and Rhode Island have each established State almshouses; and New York, in organizing the Willard Asylum for the care of chronic insane paupers, and by prohibiting the committal or detention of juveniles or of insane in the ordinary county poorhouses, made a long stride in the progress of humane and efficient legislation on this subject.

But, so far as I am aware, neither the district system as a whole, nor State almshouses as a part, of a general plan of public care of the dependent and delinquent classes herein spoken of, have yet had a fair trial or full acceptance in any of the States, East or West; though the arguments in their favor, backed as they are by the hearty recommendation from some, and the partial adoption by others, would seem to justify a full trial by some of the States not yet irrevocably committed to other customs.

And now in conclusion may I say frankly, that the greatest obstacle in the way of even a partial reform of the evils of the

present poorhouse and jail systems is to be found in the looseness of the relations on such matters between the State as a unit, and the various counties of which the State is composed. For the county authorities invariably regard pecuniary economy as of much higher importance than the moral and physical welfare of the dependents and delinquents coming under their control. It is always cheaper to send orphan children or pauper insane to the poorhouse, and maintain them there, than to place them in the respective asylums or hospitals provided by the State, but at which the county must pay, *at rates fixed by the State*, for each inmate so placed. It is always cheaper to place all suspected, accused, and sentenced criminals, old or young, in a general and common imprisonment in the county jail, than to provide separate accommodations for each class. The constant demand for lower taxes decides these questions.

In this view it would seem that an indispensable pre-requisite to the improvement of our jail and poorhouse systems is the enactment by the respective State legislatures of statutes explicitly providing:—

First, That persons held for examination or trial shall not be placed in buildings or rooms occupied by notorious or convicted criminals.

Second, That destitute children or juvenile offenders shall not be placed or held in poorhouses or jails.

Third, That persons adjudged insane shall be forthwith placed under the care of the State, and that no insane shall be permanently held or controlled by the county authorities, except in the cases of such as have been returned from the State hospitals by reason of a lack of accommodations.

Fourth, That the county poorhouses and jails should be constantly under the supervision of State officials, who shall also make full and specific reports of their condition and management at least annually.

With these features established, the work preparatory to the introduction of a "district system" is well begun. For with these restrictions the county authorities would at once see the economy of uniting in a system of co-operation in the disposition of the dependants and petty criminals coming under their care respectively.

It only remains to add that these changes need not be opposed as necessarily increasing the burdens of tax-payers. The annual

reports of the New York Willard Asylum have fully demonstrated the economy of maintaining the pauper chronic insane in State almshouses constructed under the "cottage system;" and it could be similarly shown that a union system of caring for petty criminals would be materially less expensive than the present methods.

II. INFIRMARY BUILDING.

A REPORT BY GEN. R. BRINKERHOFF OF OHIO.

[Read June 11, 1879.]

In every county, in providing for the care of the poor, buildings must be provided; and as the cost of these structures, taking the whole country through, aggregates a very large sum of money, and as their location and plan of construction very largely conduce to economy and convenience in their management, it seems quite important that the subject of infirmary building should receive discussion, and especially upon an occasion like the present where so much experience can be brought to bear upon it. My own observations lead me to the conclusion that more money has been misapplied in this class of buildings, and more ignorance displayed in their location and arrangement, than can be found in any other public structures. It would seem by this time, that, out of multitudinous experiences, we ought to be able to evolve a model almshouse (or infirmary, as we call it in Ohio); and, if each one present will contribute his quota, I have no doubt we shall make much progress in that direction. My own contribution will be brief, and will be confined to general principles rather than to details. If we can settle the governing ideas of these structures, the details will take care of themselves in the hands of architects and builders.

In doing this I shall not attempt to give the reasons for all my conclusions, believing that time will be saved by defending them after they are controverted, rather than before.

LOCATION.

In the location of a county infirmary, of course, many things must be considered; and especially whatever conduces to the best health of its inmates, as good water, pure air, and perfect drainage. Water, if possible, should be had so as to be carried by gravity to every part of the building. If, however, these require-

ments can be fairly met anywhere in the immediate vicinity of the county-seat, all my observations concur in advising the selection of such location. The reasons for such a decision may be briefly stated as follows:—

1. It would seem self-evident that a public building, paid for by all the people of the county, should be, as near as possible, at the centre of population and communication; and doubly so if that point is the base of supplies and of official supervision.

2. On account of the expense of land, it is ordinarily necessary to locate a mile or two away; but otherwise there is no objection to building inside of the city limits, where it can have the advantage of gas and water, together with police and fire protection. It is a mistake to suppose that an infirmary in the country is more easily governed than in the city. Experience shows that usually the reverse is the case, and that discipline is more easily maintained in the city.

3. The inmates of infirmaries are men and women like ourselves, and many of them are very worthy people; and it is a shame to our civilization that they should be denied proper religious and social privileges, as they necessarily are, at a distance from the city. The people of the country may be just as kindly and humane as city people, but they are too few in number to enable them to provide these privileges to a populous infirmary.

4. The infirmary should be as near as possible to those who govern it. In Ohio these officials are called Infirmary Directors, and are elected by the people, and do not reside in the building.

5. Infirmaries in the city are, in the main, free from tramps, and from visitors who expect feed for their horses and dinner for themselves,—for there is no excuse for such intrusion.

6. Infirmaries near a city are more cheaply constructed, and more economically supplied; for every rod of distance increases the cost of transportation.

7. A large farm is unnecessary, for the simple reason that it is an expense, instead of a saving, to run a farm with pauper-labor. It is a place for the old, the sick, the lame, the blind, the halt, and not for able-bodied men and women. All that is needed is a large garden to supply vegetables, an orchard for fruit, and pasture-land for cows and other necessary stock. One hundred acres is a great abundance, and fifty acres is none too little, where the inmates do not number more than one hundred. By thus restricting the amount of land I would not be understood as recommending idle-

ness under any circumstances where the paupers are able to work. On the contrary, I would employ them at something, even at a loss, rather than have them do nothing; but I think they can be more advantageously employed on a small place, supplemented by in-door occupations.

In short, to my mind, all valid arguments are against the isolation of infirmaries at a distance in the country. The cost of construction, the expense of maintenance, the efficiency of government, and the entire moral, religious, social, and reformatory requirements of the institution, are largely promoted by locating near a city; and in this conclusion, so far as my knowledge extends, there is no difference of opinion among practical administrators of the largest experience, in all parts of the country.

INFIRMARY BUILDINGS.

In the matter of building-plans for our infirmary, it is impracticable to go into details upon an occasion like this; and therefore I shall only attempt the presentation of a few considerations which seem generally applicable.

1. An infirmary should be built for use and durability, and not for show; and in the matter of style any plain, substantial farmhouse is far more worthy of imitation than a Greek temple, a State capitol, a government post-office, or any of the mansard monstrosities so often selected as models on such occasions.

2. The materials to be used in construction will depend very much upon the fact whether the different departments are to be in separate buildings, or to be united in one. If in separate buildings, wood can be used altogether with advantage; but if in a single building, the risk of fire is too great for such use, and brick, stone, iron, and other non-combustible materials should be employed, and so put together as to be practically fireproof. To make the building fireproof will increase the first cost from twenty to twenty-five per cent; but even if it should cost double, it will be an economical investment.

3. An infirmary should not exceed two stories in height above the basement, except in the central part, where a third story could be used for dormitories for hired help, or other administration occupancy. For old, crippled, and infirm people, who are usually the occupants of such a building, the fewer stairs to climb, the better.

4. As far as possible the upper story should be used for dormi-

tories alone, and should be so occupied as to be entirely vacated during the daytime.

5. The hospital accommodations should be so arranged as to secure the largest amount of fresh air, sunlight, and quiet, and therefore should be in separate additions to the main buildings, either at the ends or in the rear. They should be two stories high, so as to allow the second story to be set apart exclusively for contagious diseases; but in that event the second story should have no opening into the main building. Hospital capacity should be calculated on a ratio of about one to every five of total inmates.

6. Every infirmary should have a chapel for the religious culture and social entertainment of its inmates. This should be on the second floor, and easy of access to all.

7. The basement story should be devoted exclusive to culinary, dining-room, and working purposes; and, if the slope of the land will permit, the rear floor should be on a level with the ground.

8. The size of dormitories will depend upon location somewhat. Near a large city, where there is a great number of transients at certain seasons of the year, large dormitories are a necessity; but in the rural districts probably not more than four in a room should be permitted. A room twelve by fifteen will be large enough for four single beds, eight by fifteen for two, provided openings at the bottom and above the hall doors are provided for additional ventilation; but otherwise there should be at least eight hundred cubic feet of space for each occupant.

There are many other matters worthy of our consideration; but the foregoing principles are fundamental requirements in every infirmary, either large or small. The skeleton of all vertebrate animals is essentially the same, from a mouse to a mammoth; and it is the skeleton of an infirmary that I am seeking to depict, and only the main divisions of that, as, for example, the head, trunk, arms, and legs. These main divisions of an infirmary may be designated as follows:—

1. There must be an entire separation of sexes. This will require two buildings, or else one building with such partition-walls as to make a complete separation of inmates.

2. There must be a kitchen, laundry, and chapel, of sufficient capacity for both these departments, and in connection therewith two dining-rooms, one for males and one for females.

3. There must be two hospitals, one for males and one for females.

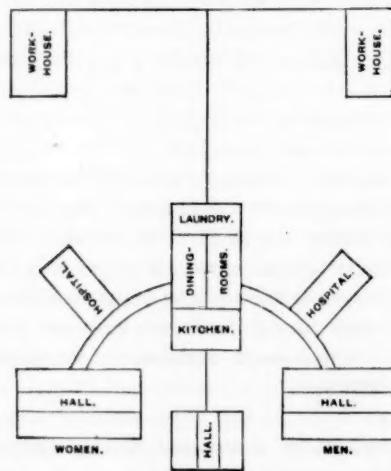
4. There must be a department for the accommodation of the superintendent, and other persons connected with the administration.

5. There must be arrangements for the proper employment of all inmates who are able to do any work.

In making arrangements to secure these essentials there are two plans which suggest themselves, each of which has merits :—

1. By the erection of separate buildings. Where there are two hundred or more to be provided for, this would be a very good plan, as it secures absolute isolation, ample ventilation, and a good security from fires, even when wood alone is used in building. It would, however, increase the amount of hired help, and weaken the responsibility of the superintendent, and therefore is not likely to be approved largely, except perhaps in warm climates, where the freest circulation of air is indispensable. The separate buildings could be located and grouped as follows, in

PLAN No. 1.

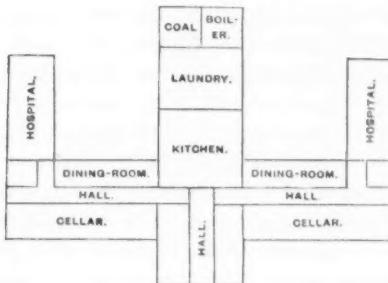


All these buildings should be two stories high, except the workshops and hospitals, which are one story. The chapel would be above the kitchen and dining-rooms. If desired, a second story could be added to the hospitals, for contagious diseases, although

a pest-house entirely isolated would seem more appropriate. Separated in this manner, these buildings could be cheaply constructed of wood, and should be far enough apart so that any one could be burned without necessarily endangering the others.

2. Where there are less than two hundred inmates, however, it would be more economical for construction and management to consolidate these buildings, and, except in our larger cities, this would usually be the case; therefore, as a rule, a united structure would be adopted. Brought together, these several buildings would readily unite themselves as follows, in

PLAN NO. 2.



No change whatever is made in the form of the buildings, and no change of occupancy except in dining-rooms and chapel. The chapel would be carried up to the second story above the basement, and its former place appropriated to a dining-room and kitchen for the administration. The entire building, unless the hospital be excepted, would now be two stories high above a basement. Only the basement outlines are given, but each story can be readily subdivided into rooms and closets, as desired for occupancy.

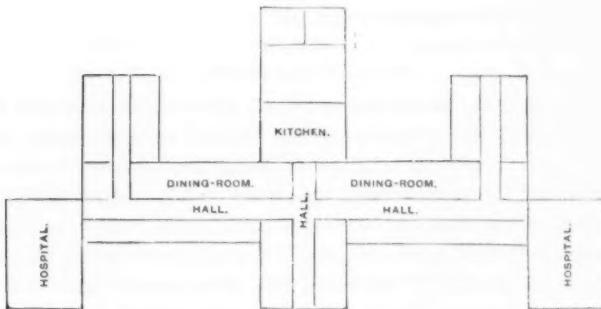
Where the ground slopes to the rear, the building can be so arranged that the kitchen, laundry, and dining-rooms shall be entirely above ground, leaving the front part of the basement only two or three feet out of the ground to be used entirely for cellars and storage. Indeed, this arrangement can always be obtained by filling in with earth in front and on the sides, like an ordinary Pennsylvania bank-barn. This arrangement obviates all the usual

objections to a basement-story. In fact, the rear rooms are not basement-rooms at all, but are entirely above ground, whilst those in front are regular cellars.

The principles embodied in the foregoing plans, in the main, have been embodied in a detailed plan of an infirmary-building by the senior member of our Ohio Board of State Charities, the Hon. Joseph Perkins of Cleveland, which will be presented and explained to you by our secretary, Dr. Byers. Mr. Perkins has given years of thought to this subject, and is much more competent than I am to give you information.

In the foregoing plans, no arrangement for a classification of inmates is attempted, beyond a separation of sexes. Of course every superintendent will do something in this direction by an assignment of rooms; but to me it has seemed desirable and practicable so to construct the building itself as to provide for a further classification which shall separate the good from the bad, or rather the well-behaved and decent from the ill-behaved and indecent. There are, in almost every infirmary, some excellent people—good citizens and good Christians—whom the misfortunes of life have drifted in for shelter from the storm; and it is not right that they should be herded in with the vile and wicked like beasts of the field. I presume the average administrator will look upon this idea as a mere sentimentality; but yet, to my mind, the ideal almshouse must give it recognition, even if it does not make it the head of the corner. Why not? Is there any good reason why character should not receive recognition even in an almshouse? And if recognized why not make it the central force of discipline and moral improvement to all the inmates by allotting priority of position and association in accordance with good conduct and clean living? Justice seems to demand this, and reason would seem to indicate it as a potent moral force for efficient government. At any rate, let us see if we cannot construct our building so as to admit of such a classification without additional expense. Therefore I suggest a plan, which, although very crude, is sufficiently definite to indicate what I am aiming at. I say, without additional expense, for in adopting this plan I would shorten the main building proportionately. In fact, the expense could be decreased, for the rear buildings could be made much plainer than the front. This arrangement would shape itself as in

PLAN No. 3.



It will be noticed that this is simply such a change in plan No. 2, as to bring the hospitals forward to the front corners, and devote the rear building to the worst class of inmates. The same dining-room can be occupied by both classes by the use of movable screens for separation. Then let a record-book be kept, and a strict account of conduct be registered for each inmate, as in the Elmira Reformatory Prison, and let promotion be made in accordance therewith. I believe this system would work well in practice, if administered wisely and kindly. There surely ought to be some means of discipline in every infirmary, so that bad conduct shall be punished and good conduct rewarded; and such discipline can be best administered by separation. The arrangement suggested makes such provision in advance, in the organic structure of the building.

In most infirmaries there are some inmates who are idiots or imbeciles, and frequently there are insane persons; where this is the case, they should be provided for in a rear building separate from the other inmates. These classes, however, ought not to be in an infirmary at all, but should be provided for in idiotic or insane asylums, entirely apart from the ordinary poor; and every principle of economy, as well as humanity, demands that this should be done.

It will be noticed also that I have made no special arrangements anywhere for the care of children. The reasons for this are, that I do not believe that children have any business in an infirmary, and I have the faith to believe that the time is so near at hand when they will be provided for in custodial or industrial homes,

entirely separate from the contaminating influences of an infirmary, that there is but little use of talking about arrangements for them in new infirmary-buildings.

MODEL MANAGEMENT.

Allow me to say in conclusion, that, after all is said and done in regard to infirmary-buildings, the highest need of these structures is not so much model plans as model management. We may attain perfection in structure, but, if we fail to superadd to it a competent administration, we shall have made a very unsatisfactory expenditure of public money. A model building and a model administrator should go together; but, if we are to have but one of these requirements, let us have a model administrator.

It is strange that this requirement is so rarely recognized; and yet, strange as it may seem, the selection of an infirmary superintendent is usually based much more upon his capacity to manage horses and cattle, and make the farm productive, than it is upon his capacity to manage men and women, so as to encourage the good and reform the bad, and to disburse the bounty of the public with a wise humanity and a wise economy. There cannot be a stronger illustration of an economy "that saves at the spigot, and wastes at the bung," than to employ a cheap infirmary superintendent simply because he is cheap.

There are but few positions anywhere that require a larger combination of the best qualities of head and heart than this; and, when found, it is very certain it cannot be had at the wages of an ordinary day-laborer. Undoubtedly great extravagance has been perpetrated in many of our public institutions; but the loss of money arising therefrom is a mere bagatelle compared with the wastage resulting from parsimony in the employment of those who manage those institutions. An incompetent superintendent is dear at the smallest salary, and a competent man is cheap at the highest. Therefore, whilst we urge improvement in infirmary-buildings, let us urge, with a double emphasis, improvement in infirmary superintendence.

The golden rule of economy for all of our public institutions should be, *Retrenchment in construction, liberality in supervision.*

THE HIGHEST NEED.

And yet, after all attainments possible in the direction of convenience in construction and economy in management, there is

still an additional requirement, which, to my mind, is more important than either; and that is an elevated moral and religious tone in these institutions. The public care of the poor, and of all other dependent classes, is an outgrowth of Christianity as certainly as an oak is the outgrowth of an acorn; and it is only in the line of their origin and growth that our benevolent institutions can evolve their largest attainments. Like the cedars of Lebanon, these institutions are seedlings from Judean soil, and have their life and being in the teachings and the philosophy of the Divine Nazarene. Outside of Christianity there has never been, through all the ages, any general public provision for dependents through poverty and disease; and it is only the revelation of the Great Teacher as to the higher nature of man, which makes him a child of the infinite, that causes provision for them to-day. To administer this bounty most wisely by one who does not recognize its origin, seems preposterous; and therefore it seems to me that an infirmary superintendent who cannot see in Lazarus a possible superiority to Dives, and cannot realize that the poor and the rich alike are the children of a common Father, and heirs of an eternal destiny, is not so amply equipped for his position as he ought to be, and must necessarily fall short of its highest requirements. I believe, therefore, I am not overestimating a fact in suggesting that the highest essential even in an infirmary-building is moral rather than physical,—spiritual rather than material. Without this divine afflatus to crown the whole, our benevolent institutions will be as the Apostle Paul depicted himself, viz.,—

“ Though I speak with the tongues of men and of angels, and have not charity, I am become as sounding brass, or a tinkling cymbal.

“ And though I have the gift of prophecy, and understand all mysteries and all knowledge; and though I have all faith, so that I could remove mountains, and have not charity, I am nothing.

“ And though I bestow all my goods to feed the poor, and though I give my body to be burned, and have not charity, it profiteth me nothing.

“ Charity suffereth long, and is kind; charity envieth not; charity vaunteth not itself, is not puffed up;

“ Doth not behave itself unseemly, seeketh not her own, is not easily provoked, thinketh no evil;

“ Rejoiceth not in iniquity, but rejoiceeth in the truth;

“ Beareth all things, believeth all things, endureth all things.

"And now abideth faith, hope, charity, these three; but the greatest of these is charity."

And so in our model infirmary-building we have convenience of construction, a cultured management, and that divine love of humanity indicated by the obsolete definition of that noble word "charity;" "these three, but the greatest of these is charity."

III. BUILDINGS FOR THE CRIMINAL INSANE.

BY WALTER CHANNING, M.D., BOSTON, FORMERLY OF THE ASYLUM FOR INSANE CRIMINALS AT AUBURN, N.Y., AND OF THE STATE LUNATIC HOSPITAL AT DANVERS, MASS.

During the last thirty years the evil of associating and treating insane criminals along with the ordinary insane has been a subject of constant and growing public interest, giving rise to much discussion.

Perhaps on no point connected with the treatment of the insane, has the opinion of insane-hospital authorities been more unanimous than this. This opinion has also been largely shared by prison officials, and others conversant with the peculiarities of the insane criminal. Notwithstanding this unanimity of opinion, as yet the Broadmoor Asylum for Criminals in England, and the State Asylum for Insane Criminals in Auburn, N.Y., are the only institutions that exist, *apart from prisons*, for this class *alone*.

It is my opinion that insane criminals should be provided for in buildings erected *exclusively* for them, as soon as possible; and it will be my object in this paper to show, *first*, Why such separation is necessary, and, *second*, How it may best be carried out.

In writing on the subject of insanity in criminals, we find two classes, which, to avoid confusion, we will define, and give a name to, before proceeding further. One of them is that class of persons who committed a crime when sane, and, being convicted, became insane during confinement in prison. This class I will call the *convicted insane*. The other class is composed of those persons who were insane at the time of the committal of the crime, or while under indictment became so, and hence have not been tried. Much difficulty has been experienced in settling on a name for the latter class; for it is said insanity is not a *crime*, the subject of it is not responsible for his acts, and it is therefore an injustice to the insane committer of a crime, to stigmatize him by the use of the word *criminal* in connection with his *disease*. Granting

the abstract justice of such a construction, the effect of the act on society remains the same; it must still be regarded as an offence against one of its laws, and it must ever therefore be denominated a *crime*. To modify the name applied to this second class, I propose to speak of them as the *unconvicted insane*, instead of as "the criminal insane," "insane criminals," "criminal lunatics," &c. In speaking of the two classes collectively, I shall use the term, *insane criminals*.

It is a well-known fact, that criminals form a distinct class, mentally, physically, and socially, by themselves. They inherit criminal tastes, as other classes inherit legal or business tastes. "Moral depravity is transmitted through families."¹ Not only are mental weaknesses transmitted, but physical as well. The criminal is the subject of epilepsy, of insanity, of syphilis, and various other physical deficiencies. With this bad heredity he is, from his first entrance into the world, exposed to the worst of influences. In infancy these amount simply to bad hygienic surroundings, poor food, and insufficient care; but, as his mind begins to develop, vice, in its various forms, is the only example set up for him to follow. As a result of this bad environment, combined with great intellectual and moral weakness, we find a character strongly inclined to evil. The impulses of the criminal are bad rather than good; but, being unconscious of this, he yields constantly to them, and in time, therefore, his standard of right and wrong becomes so distorted, that he cannot understandingly distinguish one from the other.

After serving a sufficiently long apprenticeship, the criminal graduates in vice, and is ready for such acts of wickedness as his temperament and education have made him proficient in. These acts are performed with a regularity and method characteristic of ordinary business enterprises. The following illustration shows with what persistency crime is pursued as a business, in spite of the punishment to which the offenders have been subjected: Five hundred and seventy-six criminals were committed to the Scotch prisons 2,874 times; and out of 904 female convicts no less than 440, after long sentences and within eleven years, returned again to prison.² Confinement in prison is a risk which is thought of and calculated on by the criminal, very much as the dangers

¹ J. Bruce Thompson: "Nature of Crime," Journal of Mental Science, 1870.

² Figures compiled by J. Bruce Thompson, medical officer to the General Prison, Perth, Scotland.

of the sea are estimated by the sailor: both are willing to run the risk.

When apprehended, however, and sentenced to prison, the criminal rebels at what he regards as unjust treatment. With his peculiar nervous organization,—irritable, impulsive, yielding to any passing caprice or passion,—physically impaired, in many cases, by disease and prolonged dissipation, and totally unable to discriminate between right and wrong, he is sentenced to prison for what was to him a frequent act, and not a crime. He cannot understand that he is guilty; and imprisonment is only a just atonement, because, as has been stated by Thompson, "the moral insensibility of criminals is marked by the apparent absence of remorse in high-class criminals, murderers, homicides, infanticides, &c. Of from four to five hundred murderers, only three have ever been known to feel remorse for the heinous crimes of which they have been found guilty." Despine made a somewhat similar statement when he said "that the moral sense was utterly and invariably absent in criminals who committed deeds in cold blood." Entering prison with this blunted moral perception, a feeble mind, and a poor physique, the criminal is peculiarly sensitive to the material nature of his surroundings. His moral condition is usually taken no notice of, however, by the prison-officer, who cuts his hair, puts on a prison-suit, and in other ways quickly changes him into the typical prison-convict. Having thus lost his identity as a member of the outside world, he is put to work at what is uncongenial to him. He is given poor food often, sleeps in a cramped and frequently badly-ventilated cell, and, worst of all, is cut off from all counsel, sympathy, and encouragement. He takes but little interest in his work; neglects it if possible, or performs it in a stupid, dogged manner. He does not endeavor to better his surroundings, but broods over his wrongs. As a consequence of this state of feeling, he sinks into a torpor from which he is not easily roused.

Thus monotonously and wearily pass the days of his imprisonment. His feeble power of reasoning is gradually overcome by the strength of his wayward and imbibited thoughts. He loses appetite, and passes sleepless nights. Often he is so absorbed in his own feelings, that he cannot be made to work. This conduct is sometimes supposed by the prison-officials to be wanton rebelliousness, and the convict is punished for disobedience. This, however, produces but little effect; he persists in the same course

of conduct. He now begins to lose flesh, and show decided signs of declining health. At this juncture, when the man is evidently in failing health, and nothing can be made of his symptoms by the prison-physician, he is called "out of his head" for want of a better diagnosis. Active delusions may be developed, and all the acts of the convict point conclusively to insanity; but, unless acts of violence betray themselves, he is still called only a little "luney," and continued in his cell. If, however, he is the subject of acute and noisy and violent mania, the keepers become alarmed, and transferral to an asylum follows immediately. I have even known convicts to be transferred to the asylum at Auburn who were merely violent, and not insane. My experience has been that convicts are first discovered to be insane when troublesome; and I have but little doubt that large numbers of insane convicts could be found in prisons to-day, whose insanity has never been suspected. Not only are insane men frequently committed to prisons, but also some prison-physicians have but the most limited acquaintance with insanity, and hence are the last persons to recognize the disease.

Thompson, to whom I have already referred, was for many years surgeon to the general prison at Perth, Scotland. Several of the papers written by him show much ability, as well as acuteness of perception in observing the convicts under his charge. He has said that "the principal business of prison-surgeons must always be with mental diseases;" also, that "the treatment of crime is a branch of psychology." These observations have not been verified in my own experience. Most of the convicted insane at Auburn came from the New York State prisons, and many of the certificates accompanying them were marvels of ignorance and incoherence. Sometimes one and the same person would be certified to as the subject of four or five different forms of insanity! Such a want of knowledge is culpable, and it is to be hoped that it is not universal among prison-physicians. I can only indorse the words of Thompson. Our prison-physicians must emulate the example of their English and Scotch brethren, and remember that every prisoner under their charge is a closed book whose pages must be opened and carefully studied.

Having briefly described the condition of an insane convict in prison, I will next follow him to the criminal asylum. Taking the general type of men as admitted to the Auburn asylum while I was connected with it, a much less degree of excitement, confu-

sion, and incoherence was manifest, than in patients admitted to an ordinary asylum. They were reduced in flesh, often painfully emaciated. They looked cowed, and afraid to speak; but often, on being conversed with, were found to talk rationally, if not demented, or naturally too stupid. In the quietness and regularity of their actions, they betrayed no indications of insanity. A degree of depression was generally noticeable, not, however, sufficient to suggest acute melancholia. Some of them were cases of sub-acute melancholia or mania, or melancholia and mania that had already become chronic. Others were cases of dementia; and still other cases could not at first be classified, their prison surroundings had so modified the condition in which they presented themselves. At the same time the easy diagnosis of the disease would be obscured, from the fact that "the very low type of the thoroughly criminal mind, naturally bordering on the unsound state, necessarily weakens the otherwise striking contrast afforded when the threshold of insanity has been crossed."¹

The women—the number of whom is small at Auburn—were, when admitted, in a more excitable and exalted condition than the men. They had had, as a rule, bad reputations when in prison, being turbulent and difficult to manage. Many of them had been subject to the "breakings-out" mentioned by English writers. These were often due to the desire for excitement, or "change even if for the worse."² Often violence was indulged in to bring about the transferral to Auburn. Frequently these "breakings-out" were continued in the asylum. In the conduct of these women there was so much viciousness, so much depravity, so much cunning in planning and carrying out plots of mischievous destructiveness and violence, and at the same time so much rational behavior, that it was often extremely difficult to draw the line between insanity and depravity. Mr. Gover of Millbank prison, states the fact that the rate of insanity is higher among male convicts than females; but, he says, "among the women there is a very large class who have lost self-control. They are free from delusions. Their reasoning power is defective, and they manifest their unsoundness by absurd and violent conduct, and disproportion between acts and motives." It is in these very cases, of course, that a knowledge of psychology, as well as a thorough understanding of the criminal character, are necessary in order that the observer may be able to determine the delicate lights and shades which go toward establishing a satisfactory diagnosis.

¹ David Nicolson, "Feigned Insanity," *Journal Mental Diseases*, 1870.

² Nicolson.

As a rule, the women were of the lowest character, having gradually sunk from one grade of vice to another, until the worst had been reached. The majority of patients at the asylum were young. The report for 1878 states, that, out of 492 admitted since the opening of the asylum, 239 were between twenty and thirty years of age.

As the days and weeks passed on, the men who had been received from the prisons began to show their various individual peculiarities. A large proportion of them were found to be morose and sullen, retaining many of the bad habits acquired both before and after entering prison. But few of them, on first entering, were so acutely and violently insane (though, of course, there was a certain number) that they could not indulge their vicious propensities; and many of them required special care and watching to prevent outbreaks of violence, attempts to escape, &c. Such a small proportion could read, or, if they could, had a taste for such low literature, that very little occupation was afforded by reading, and consequently much more time was left to be otherwise disposed of. This would be passed by the more vicious in grumbling at food, clothing, bedding, and the treatment of officials. This was a habit largely acquired in prison, for the old jail-bird is notorious as an instigator of complaints, and a chronic grumbler on all occasions. A favorite complaint among the convicted insane was that they had been unjustly sentenced to prison, and, by brooding over it, they at last believed themselves that they were innocent. This feeling made them chafe much more at confinement in the asylum than is customary with the ordinary insane, and kept alive an ardent desire to escape, which seems to form an element of the convict's character.

I will now consider the class of the unconvicted insane, as found at the Auburn asylum. The laws¹ of New York state, that "when a person accused of arson, or murder, or attempt at murder, shall have escaped indictment, or shall have been acquitted upon trial, upon the ground of insanity, the court . . . shall carefully inquire and ascertain whether the insanity in any degree continues, and, if it does, shall order such person into safe custody, and to be sent to one of the State lunatic asylums, or to the State Asylum for Insane Criminals at Auburn, at the discretion of the court." This law, which I regard as a wise doing-away with the necessity (for the present, at any rate) of separate hospitals for the con-

¹ Sect. 22, Art. 2, Chap. 446, Laws 1874.

victed an., unconvicted insane, sent a certain number of the more well-to-do and influential and perhaps harmless, of this class, to ordinary State asylums. Leaving these out of account, I should say that a higher place in the social scale has been assigned the unconvicted insane, than they are strictly entitled to. About two-fifths of the Auburn patients were unconvicted. Two of these were old women, and perhaps four or five old men, and two or three more, young imbeciles. They were all harmless, and could have been kept at any asylum; but, with these exceptions, I do not at present remember any who were not, on the whole, better adapted to the Auburn institution than to any other. It must not be forgotten that a large number of this class have been dissipated previous to their crimes. I can indorse the following words of Dr. C. F. MacDonald, Superintendent of the Auburn asylum:¹ "I may state in this connection a fact which has struck me as being noteworthy; namely, that a large majority of the persons who have been acquitted of, or who have escaped indictment for, the acts mentioned, on the ground of insanity, have led immoral lives previous to their insanity, which in many cases is the direct entailment of their immoralities." Such immoral lives would render them highly undesirable inmates of an ordinary asylum.

Among the unconvicted insane were many epileptics, in whom the disease had been entirely unsuspected until some act of terrible homicidal violence revealed its true nature.² This was, perhaps, the most dangerous class in the asylum. Another very troublesome class were those who, having escaped indictment, or being acquitted, were, to all intents and purposes, sane in ordinary asylum life, but still had to be continued as inmates, for the reason that without restraint they would have again become dangerous members of society. For these reasons I feel that the greater number of the unconvicted insane had better be treated with the convicted class. Dr. MacDonald writes me on this point: "As regards the necessity, or desirability, of separate asylums for the treatment of unconvicted criminal lunatics, i.e., apart from convicted lunatics, I reply, that, theoretically, there are certain *social objections* to the mingling of these two classes, but an analysis of the moral and social status of the *unconvicted* cases that have been sent here by order of the courts shows that as a rule such persons

¹ Extract from a letter published in a Report on the Disposition of Insane Criminals, contained in the Annual Report of the State Board of Health of New Jersey, for 1878.

² See the cases of William Chambers, Jacob Standermann, and others, reported in the American Journal of Insanity.

have displayed criminal traits prior to the development of insanity, and this fact removes, or at least modifies materially, the objection which would at first seem unanswerable."

Having thus described a few of the peculiar characteristics of both the convicted and unconvicted insane, more especially while in prison and at the criminal insane asylum, it will be interesting to briefly consider the experience of superintendents of ordinary hospitals for the insane in their treatment. As I have stated at the beginning of this paper, there is an unanimity of opinion as to the desirability of separating the criminal from the ordinary insane. Some superintendents favor the treatment of the *unconvicted* with the ordinary insane, but those advocating this plan, I think, cannot have had a large number under observation. It must be remembered that at best the proportion of the *unconvicted* class is small, and that more of this class are fitted for ordinary hospitals than the convicted; but the facts that (put them in any light we can) they *have* committed *crimes*, that often they have led immoral lives, and that frequently their *mental state*¹ peculiarly adapts them for separation, must *never* be lost sight of.

At the annual meeting of the British Medico-Psychological Association, in 1873, it was moved "that this Association take steps to prevent criminal lunatics being sent to county asylums." The resolution referred particularly to the convicted insane, for the reason that the unconvicted, or "lunatics detained at her Majesty's pleasure," were already provided for at the Broadmoor Criminal Asylum, leaving, therefore, the mass of the convicted to be cared for at the county asylums. Matters have gone from bad to worse in England until there are now over twelve hundred criminal lunatics in the county asylums.² In May of the same year that the above resolution was passed by the English Association, our own Association of Asylum Superintendents passed the following resolution in reference to the "Care of Insane Criminals:" "*Resolved*, 1. That neither the cells of penitentiaries, nor the wards of ordinary hospitals for the insane, are proper places for the custody and treatment of this class of the insane." In this resolution were embodied the views of our superintendents as a whole. I desire to give in this paper the views of one of their number more in detail, for the purpose of more directly showing the practical difficulties there are to contend against in treating the convicted insane

¹ Suggested by a writer in the January number of the Journal of Mental Science, for 1879, as the test for separation.

² Journal of Mental Science, January, 1879.

in the ordinary hospital. This I can best do by quoting from an excellent letter of Dr. John W. Ward, Superintendent of the New Jersey State Lunatic Asylum at Trenton, N.J., who for some time has had a large number of insane criminals under his charge, and is, consequently, in an admirable position to pass judgment on their treatment. Dr. Ward thinks that the unconvicted insane can be treated with the ordinary insane, to which I must dissent, for the reasons mentioned above.¹

Dr. Ward writes as follows: "We at present (April 3, 1879) have thirty-four of this class (of the convicted insane) under care in this institution; and from actual experience, and not theory, I think I am justified in saying that the present system in vogue, of treating the convict class in an ordinary hospital for the insane, is most unjust and undesirable. Your first question: Are they (the convicted insane) more care than the ordinary insane? Decidedly, if treated in an ordinary hospital for the insane. The custodial care of this class, as you can readily see, is a matter of much greater importance than the care of the ordinary insane. Many of these people are professional housebreakers and thieves, many of them murderer, persons most undesirable to have turned loose on society; and hence the necessity of making special provision for their detention. To do this, and introduce the fewest possible features of a State prison, we have the corridor set apart for this class double-locked, and with a double force of attendants. We have here three or four attendants, as the case may be, to two attendants on a corridor where there are no convicts. The superintendent of a hospital in this State is made amenable, should an escape occur of one of this class, to the same laws, and subject to the same penalties, as the keeper of the State prison. . . . Our hospitals are not constructed for their custody, and it is not desirable to introduce the ordinary features, even, of a prison into a hospital for the sick. They are more care, also, in their treatment apart from the mere custodial care. They are, as a rule, bad people prior to their insanity: the exceptions to this are very few. They are, according to our experience, greatly more quarrelsome, more filthy, and in every way more ungovernable, than the ordinary insane. The proportion of troublesome patients is infinitely greater among the convict class. This is not surprising. Insanity does not usually make saints of those who have led lives of vice.

¹ Dr. Ward's statements apply very generally to the whole class of the criminal insane, according to my experience.

Second, Do they create trouble among the ordinary patients? Yes; in so much that our patients who have rational intervals, or who are convalescent, *frequently complain* of the injustice of having to be classified with persons who have come from the State prisons. . . . Third, Do they endeavor to escape? Yes, as our results show. We have five now among our number of convicts who are constantly on the alert, and whom we have to keep under almost constant surveillance. Of the forty-six, the whole number received since the passage of the act compelling us to take this class, no less than *seven* have made their escape, notwithstanding all our watchfulness."

From a consideration of what I have above written, it is evident,—

1. That criminals, as a class, differ from all other classes in the community.
2. That insanity occurring in prison presents a type of disease markedly differing in its manifestations from that ordinarily observed in the outside world.
3. That the convicted insane should never be treated in ordinary hospitals for the insane.
4. That the unconvicted insane should only in exceptional cases be treated in ordinary hospitals for the insane.

Various opinions are at present entertained as to the best means of separation. In the large States there is no doubt that separate hospitals at some central point would be most advantageous. In time there might be a further subdivision, and such States as New York, Pennsylvania, and Illinois could each have a hospital for the convicted insane and the unconvicted insane. This example the smaller States could hardly ever hope to follow; and in some of them the time is far distant when a hospital for both classes will be necessary. The erection of separate hospitals in each State must depend exclusively on the number of the criminal insane. Dr. Ward, from whom I have already quoted, says on this point: "The only way to properly care for insane convicts would be the erection of a separate hospital. Whether the hospital should be within the prison-enclosure, on the grounds of the State Hospital for the Insane, or be entirely separate and apart from either, would have to be decided by the peculiar circumstances connected with each case. In our own State (New Jersey) we have not a sufficiently large number to warrant the erection of a separate hospital under a separate management. Economy is against this.

But I do most earnestly advocate a separate building within the prison-enclosure if possible; but if not, let it be upon our own grounds rather than not have it at all. In those States where the number will warrant it, there should be a special building entirely apart and distinct from either hospital or prison." Dr. C. F. MacDonald, of the Auburn Asylum, says on the same subject: "I may say that my experience in the treatment of both classes of the insane, criminal and ordinary, has fully convinced me of the wisdom of providing separate institutions for the treatment of criminal lunatics."¹

Dr. Eastman writes in a letter to Mr. F. B. Sanborn, from the new State Hospital at Worcester, Jan. 13, 1879 (being at that time superintendent of the hospital), that "the insane department of the State prison should provide for insane convicts, whether sentenced to prison, or the house of correction. For the criminal insane, I would provide at the State prison or the lunatic-hospitals according to the circumstances of each case. If the numbers warranted it, a suitable and special institution for insane convicts and so-called criminal insane would be the best provision for these classes."

Dr. Park, the present superintendent of the new State Hospital at Worcester, in a letter written to Mr. Sanborn in January last favors separate provision for insane criminals, and says: "In addition to a building, or portion of a building, sufficiently secure for the safe-keeping of this class, I think there should be an enclosed space out of doors where the patients could obtain air and exercise. Eight or ten acres, surrounded by a high fence or wall, would be enough for a hundred and fifty patients." Dr. Brown, superintendent of the Taunton State Lunatic Hospital, writing also to Mr. Sanborn, thinks that "the criminal insane should be taken care of either in an establishment especially for them, or in a department by themselves, connected with one or more of the present hospitals, where systematic labor could be provided and made compulsory for such as are able to work. Such an arrangement would seem to me but just to our insane in the hospitals who are *not* criminals."

It will be seen that several of these gentlemen, for very excellent reasons of expediency, though in favor of separate buildings, are willing to compromise by using a separate building connected with the hospital or prison. Such partial separation is not, to my mind, sufficient; for, in order to give the insane criminal *all* the

¹ From quotations already made from Dr. MacDonald, it will be seen that he includes both the convicted and unconvicted insane in the expression "criminal lunatics."

benefits of a treatment peculiarly suited to him, he must be removed from all the surroundings and influences of a prison or hospital. If treated in a building connected with an ordinary hospital, he not only may still exert a prejudicial influence on the inmates of the institution, but he cannot also receive that amount of care and attention, or be given the liberty and freedom of action, that he is entitled to. *He still belongs to an exceptional class.* If treated in a special department of a prison, it is even worse. Here he can *never* get out of the prison atmosphere; he is confined, watched, suspected, and remains a convict rather than a sick man. The intelligent treatment of the psychologist in prison he cannot, in this country, expect to have, neither can his hygienic surroundings—food, amusements, occupation, &c.—be such as the nature of his disease imperatively demands. For these reasons, I would urge the imperative necessity of treating all insane criminals, in all States, in hospitals, *separate, entirely distinct, and remote from prisons.*

Several of the small States can build criminal asylums, and take the insane criminals of the neighboring small States as boarders. The small States now having the largest number of insane criminals would naturally be the ones to undertake the erection of these hospitals. It has often been suggested that several small States could unite, and together build a criminal asylum; but such an arrangement might result in a clashing of interests, a difference of opinion as to management, and a want of harmony, that would eventually lead to most undesirable complications.

If the number of insane criminals could be accurately determined in each of the States, it would be much larger than is generally supposed. Massachusetts furnishes a good illustration of this, as may be partially shown from the following table:¹—

NUMBER OF INSANE CRIMINALS IN MASSACHUSETTS HOSPITALS,
JAN. 1, 1879.

	CONVICTED.		UNCONVICTED.		Total.
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	
Old Worcester Hospital	3	—	—	—	3
New Worcester Hospital	14	5	9	—	28
Northampton Hospital	14	—	1	—	15
Taunton Hospital	16	—	18	—	34
Danvers Hospital	2	2	—	—	4
Grand total	49	7	28	—	84

¹ The data for this Table were kindly furnished me by Mr. F. B. Sanborn.

To our surprise, we see that there are, in our insane-hospitals alone, eighty-four patients who have committed crimes when sane or insane. If to this number we were to add all persons in our jails, State-prisons, reformatories, &c., who, on a careful examination, would undoubtedly be found insane and proper subjects for hospital treatment, the number could be easily brought up to one hundred, at the least. Such a large number would not only serve as a nucleus for a special hospital, but is in itself sufficient justification for the immediate erection of such a building in Massachusetts, even if no other States would be able to furnish inmates. Under the circumstances it would seem to me best that Massachusetts should build a hospital for insane criminals, with accommodation for two hundred patients. After transferring all insane criminals, at present inmates of the ordinary hospitals and other institutions, insane criminal boarders from adjoining States could be received until the hospital was full. And such boarders could continue to be received until the number of insane criminals in Massachusetts required all the space. It is to be sincerely hoped that we shall never have so large a number in the State; but, as our population increases, and the subject of criminal insanity is better understood,¹ it is highly probable that it will some day be reached.

The hospitals for insane criminals should be organized after the manner of ordinary State hospitals; that is, it should have a board of from three to five trustees. One or two of these should have a knowledge of insanity; and, if possible, one of the others should be chosen from the Board of Prison Commissioners, Prison Managers, or other prison authorities. A board so constituted would bring experience to the work, and be able to consider the question of management understandingly from both sides. The criminal asylum at Auburn has no board of managers, but is under the supervision of the Superintendent of State Prisons. While this plan at present works admirably, Dr. MacDonald has recommended that the organization should be similar to that of ordinary hospitals for the insane.

For the site of the hospital, a moderate-sized farm, on a main line of railroad, but some distance back in the country, should be selected. I regard a farm as of great importance in treating the

¹ Dr. Earle thinks that most of the convicted insane at the Northampton Hospital, of which he is superintendent, were insane before sentenced to prison. It is an undoubted fact, that, from defective knowledge of insanity, lunatics are often sentenced to prison.

criminal class, for the reason that a vast amount of evil-disposed energy can be disposed of by healthful out-door work. Not only can the partially broken-down constitutions of this class be restored by such work, but, being unskilled in other kinds of more complex labor, and being as a rule illiterate, and so cut off from intellectual resources, we find in farm-work a mode of employment peculiarly adapted to them. If one wing only of the hospital were built before occupancy, much of the remaining work could be done by the patients; for, although unskilled in labor, insane criminals are, under proper discipline, even better workers than the ordinary insane.

The sexes should not be treated in one building together; but, if a sufficient number of females were to be found, they should be provided for in a block entirely isolated from the other buildings. A provision of this kind would be an absolute necessity, as the animal passions of female and male insane criminals are under little control; while the services of each sex would be much more available in separate buildings.

In erecting the buildings, *security* is a point to which great importance should be attached. The insane criminal, being an offender against the laws of society, though not to be punished, must be held as a prisoner; and, the more absolute the certainty that he will be held, the greater is the protection to society. The criminal is at the same time benefited, as he can be granted many privileges impossible in an ordinary hospital. The building should be constructed of brick, the walls and partitions being of strong masonry, and rendered, if possible, fire-proof. There should be a large number of small wards, both for the convenience of a varied classification, and the easier management of a small number of patients. One ward should be constructed with a view of holding that portion of the patients especially prone to escape. In this ward the wood-work should be stronger, and the windows more securely guarded, than in the other wards. There should be a set of "strong-rooms," for supposed feigners and the violent and destructive class. Dr. MacDonald has adopted the plan of "sheathing" one or two rooms in his asylum with heavy oak-planking, and has then coated the sheathing with wood-filling. Such a room can be made so strong that no person without unusual tools can break out, and it is furthermore unprison-like, even attractive, in appearance, resembling a wainscotted English room. In several of these rooms there should be "observation-holes" in

the ceiling, for the purpose of watching a supposed feigner without his knowledge. The wards must be very cheerfully furnished, and contain as many pictures, flowers, or other ornaments, and as much furniture, as circumstances will allow. The patients' rooms should be large and airy and very plainly furnished, a good bedstead and bedding being the main articles allowed. There will be individual cases, of course, where more elaborate arrangements can be made.

There should be at first extensive airing-courts or exercise-yards, surrounded by high wooden fences; but in time these should give place to a high stone wall, or iron fence, which, if possible, should surround completely the hospital-farm. The whole farm will thus be made into an enclosed yard, in which many of the patients may be allowed to wander about with comparatively little watching.

The number of attendants must necessarily be large, for on them will largely depend the success of the institution. One attendant to five patients will be the proper proportion. Many of these, of course, can be employed through the day on the farm, overseeing and helping the patients.

Of the first importance in the criminal hospital is *rigid discipline*. By these words I do not mean a system of punishments, close confinement, short rations, &c., such as would be found in a prison, but rather an observance of numerous rules founded on a knowledge of the character of the insane criminal. This character is as wanting in the element of self-control as that of a child, and hence the insane criminal must be governed and led like a child. Furthermore, his evil propensities, by a cautious and judicious management, can be largely checked and curtailed. How much may be accomplished by proper treatment, may be seen at Auburn, where the worse class of the insane give but comparatively little trouble, and are subjected to a minimum of mechanical restraint,¹ and yet are as comfortable and contented as patients in an ordinary hospital for the insane. We find the patients well fed and clothed, and receiving the most thorough medical care; but combined with this treatment there is exercised an amount of disciplinary care, without being obtrusive, which would be impossible in an ordinary hospital. As illustrations of this, I may mention the following examples: wearing a uniform dress, which, however, is not a uniform; retiring at seven p.m., summer and winter; using no tobacco; carrying no knives, and, as a rule, using none at table; being thoroughly searched when entering the wards from out of

¹ Often no patient can be found restrained for long periods.

doors; using no furniture in the rooms beside a bed, &c. These and other simple regulations the patients readily yield to, and are thereby happier themselves as well as more manageable. It is but proper to state in this connection, that the wards of the Auburn Asylum are to-day as bright and cheerful and attractive as any I have seen in twenty hospitals, and the diet *better* than is furnished in some State hospitals.

Insane criminals, being, as I have before stated, remarkably deficient in general education, require more amusement than the ordinary insane. With amusements, a useful system of teaching could be combined. Evening classes could be formed for instruction in reading, writing, music, &c. Even if only a rudimentary knowledge were thus acquired, it might in a few cases lead to some good results after the discharge of the patient, and would at least afford occupation for many idle hours in the hospital. There should be a large and pleasant amusement-room, where the classes could also recite their lessons, practise music, &c. It should be understood that the patients' conduct would guide the superintendent in allowing the privileges of this room to be enjoyed.

Much more might be written if space allowed. I bring my short and imperfect paper to a close, with the earnest hope, that, before another year has passed, decided steps will be taken in at least some of the States to provide proper hospitals for their insane criminals.

IV. STATE PRISONS.

BY REV. AUGUSTUS WOODBURY, ONE OF THE COMMISSIONERS FOR BUILDING THE RHODE ISLAND PRISON.

In building a State-prison, the following objects seem desirable:—

1. A good site, on warm, dry soil, easy of access, with ample facilities for transportation of prisoners, manufactured goods, and the like, supplies, fuel, and all necessary materials, and readiness of obtaining an unfailing supply of water, and an ability for the quick disposition of sewage.

2. Strength and security of construction, according to plans which will secure abundance of light and sunshine, complete ventilation, full supervision, convenience for moving the prisoners to and from their cells, the undoubted protection of officers in the discharge of their duty, and an arrangement for heating which will combine perfect safety with an abundant supply of warmth.

3. A complete adaptation of the structure to its purposes of confinement and restraint, with a view to the possible improvement of the prisoners, as respects classification, grading, punishments for offences against discipline, and rewards for good behavior.

4. A reasonable economy in the present labor of construction, and the consideration of the same economy in the future methods of administration.

I shall discuss the subject assigned to me under the four heads which I have thus presented, and shall illustrate the subject with a description of the new State-prison recently built by the State of Rhode Island. In selecting this prison in particular, I do not wish in any manner to reflect upon any of the recent structures of the kind in other States. I am more familiar with the details of the building in my own State, — some of which are exceptional, — and at the present writing it is the last finished building of the kind in the country. It was, moreover, constructed under very favorable conditions. The commissioners were allowed full liberty to carry out their plans. The legislature did not restrict them in any way to any designated amount of expenditure, or to any particular period of time. If they did not succeed in producing a work which can thus be cited as an example of prison architecture, it was not because of a lack of opportunity or means.

1. A prison should have a good site. This seems commonplace enough; but it is a very important consideration. A dry soil and a sunny aspect are indispensable. It is also advantageous to place the building far enough from any compact settlement, to insure a free circulation of air around the premises, and to afford an unobstructed view of all the approaches to it. At the same time it is not advisable to place it too far away from the centres of population. The neighborhood of a city, from the police of which aid could be quickly summoned if needed; in which different kinds of business are carried on, that the prisoners might find ready employment; from which all necessary supplies can easily be obtained; and which is a railroad centre, affording convenient communication with all parts of the State, — would appear a very fit place for the site of a prison. If it be on a line of railroad itself, so much the more convenient; but the introduction of a railroad-track inside the yard-wall is open to some objection, as it requires perpetual vigilance, which, if intermitted, furnishes an

easy way of escape. The objection is not very serious, it is true; and most prison officials may possibly regard it as little deserving of notice. The conveniences of transportation greatly outweigh the risks.

An unfailing supply of water is of course essential, and care should be taken to place the building where there can be no question of securing it; but the introduction of water in abundance necessitates the disposal of it. The question of drainage, and of the manner in which the sewage shall be taken away, is a very serious one. In our towns and villages it is becoming more serious with the increase of population. A prison is a small, compact village, and its sewage is an important part of its administration. It hardly comes within the scope of this paper to discuss the question. Some prisons are drained into neighboring fields or swamps, with the result of filling the air around with most noisome smells; some into streams of water, to their pollution; some into a series of cesspools, which sanitary authorities call "an abomination." What is to be done with the sewage? is a question of no light moment. I allude to it as showing the need of care in choosing a site for a prison, where the soil is light and dry, that it may be freely used as a disinfectant, and a material for the compost-heap. Much valuable material now runs to waste in our systems of sewers. If it can be utilized upon the soil, it certainly will be an advantage to all concerned. Dry earth is certainly one of the best of deodorizers. In small jails earth-closets can be used with good results. I was once told in England, that in one of the prisons the earth-closet was used almost exclusively, and the material found a ready sale for a fertilizer. But I cannot enter upon the discussion of the subject here.

2. Passing to the plans and methods of construction, I would say that the first requisite is of course to provide a building of such strength and security as to baffle all attempts to "break jail." A prisoner is always on the alert to find means and opportunities for escape. He will soon ascertain the weak places in the cell he occupies, and in the building itself. It has been decided in this country, that the greatest security is found in a prison where the blocks of cells occupy the centre of the space allotted to them, with open corridors around them. In Europe, the plan of building the cells on the sides, with a gallery or corridor between the blocks, has been generally adopted. An excellent illustration of this method of construction is to be found in the Eastern Penitentiary

of Pennsylvania. The prison in Pentonville, near London, the Mazas in Paris, the prison in Perugia, may also be mentioned as among the latest examples of this method. The former plan, however, has been so almost universally adopted among us as to justify the name of American. It is needless to say that it has grown out of the "congregate" system of prison-discipline, as the latter has grown out of the "separate" system. Here, again, is a question which might lead to a long discussion. The advocates of the two systems are very earnest in the support which they give to their respective views and opinions, and each can bring an array of statistics to strengthen the position which he holds. In the State of Rhode Island, both systems have been tried, and the result of the experiment has been such as to warrant the adoption of the system — which is common in New England — of combining the features of the two, that allow of working in company during the day, and of occupying separate cells by night. The practice of taking meals together is a comparatively recent feature of prison discipline. It would require the construction of a mess-room.

Whatever system be adopted, it is necessary that the prison be built strongly and securely. Accepting the first-named method of construction, it may be decided that the blocks of cells be built of brick laid in Portland cement; and the outside walls of stone, having an inner lining of brick, with an air-passage between. The walls of the new prison of Massachusetts are of brick, as are also those of the new prison in New Hampshire. The walls of the new prison in Rhode Island are of a hard, compact blue stone, with granite quoins for the windows and corners, and with granite belting-courses. The blocks of cells should rest on a foundation of solid masonry. The floors of the cells are generally of stone, and this material is recommended by the Prison Association of New York. But other materials can be used to advantage. The floors of the Pentonville Prison are composed of asphalt laid upon brick arches, and the material is exceedingly strong and cleanly. The increasing adaptability of iron to the various uses of life has recommended it to the attention of builders; but its resonance is a decided objection in the case of the construction of cell-floors or corridor-floors. It may serve as a substruction, upon which can be placed a concrete of cement and sand; but in this case the difficulty is in the lack of the power of adhering to the iron. The material of the Pentonville floors is undoubtedly the best, but it is also the most expensive.

An abundance of light and sunshine is best secured by placing the building on a meridian-line. At some time in the day the sun will shine into every part of the prison. Darkness and cold are effective agents for punishment; and, if the infliction of pain were the chief object in the imprisonment of criminals, they might well be used in prison-construction. I do not agree to methods of weak indulgence, or to any plan of construction which would make a prison attractive; but light and sunshine are the dues of all, and even the worst criminal is not to be wholly deprived of them. Next to these, and kindred with these, is the need of complete ventilation. This need can only be fully supplied by a direct communication with the outside air, the current being controlled by the application of heat. Cells and corridors cannot be thoroughly ventilated by passing the impure air into a chamber to be thence discharged, as there will be currents and counter-currents, re-acting upon and neutralizing each other. Ventilation demands a constant supply of fresh air, and a constant discharge of the air which has become vitiated and impure. For this discharge the influence of heat is necessary, and a current of cold air is drawn in to supply the place of the bad air which has been carried away. It is not sufficient simply to open ducts. The air itself must be set in motion. In some cases fans can be very effectually used both for forcing pure air and drawing impure air out, one set at the bottom and the other at the top of the building. But a more simple arrangement can be made by bringing the air from without in contact with the heating apparatus upon one side of the corridor or cell, and creating a current by opening upon the other side ducts which pass through the roof, and thus carry off the air whose vital properties have been exhausted. But these discharging ducts must be heated to make their action effective. An open fireplace, with a fire burning in it, is admitted to be the best means of ventilating the rooms in which we habitually live. We have simply to apply the principle to the ventilation of prisons and other buildings of the kind. Yet, after all, no infallible rule can be given, as the cases under consideration are modified by the configuration of the adjoining land, the relative situation of neighboring structures, and the like. The most that can be done is to apply the well-known principles that govern the flow of air under the impulse or the attraction of heat, so far as the circumstances of the particular case will allow. In some prisons the foul air from each cell is carried into a central shaft or chimney, to be

thence discharged ; and this, unquestionably, is one of the most effectual means of ventilation.

A full supervision is the next desideratum. This must be had from the guard-room. The general plan of a prison, as is well known, is to extend wings in different directions from a central structure. I have indicated the need of making these extensions on a meridian line. The wings contain the cells; the central building contains the guard-room, offices, and if possible the chapel and hospital. The offices may be upon the first floor. The guard-room occupies the second floor, and for protection should be separated from the wings by iron gratings; but from this room there should be an unobstructed view of all the corridors and blocks of cells. Its position upon the second floor gives the advantage of supervision of both the lower and upper tiers. The corners of the central building should be cut at such an angle and to such extent as to allow the introduction of windows looking into the yard and giving a full view of every part of it. One or two officers in the guard-room can thus keep advised of every movement made in the prison-building and in the yard outside. The iron grating is a sufficient protection against any sudden assault, while the certainty of being seen from the central building at any and all times would tend to prevent any action on the part of the prisoners having an assault in view. Fore-warned is fore-armed. The assurance of detection is the preventive of any infraction of the law. Prisoners should not be allowed in the guard-room. For moving to and from their cells, a door in each wing opening into the yard will be sufficient. In this connection the question of size deserves at least a passing notice. Large prisons are not desirable, as increasing the difficulty of management, the risks of escape, and the liability to the evil results consequent upon collecting and confining large bodies of prisoners together. Three hundred prisoners are a sufficient number to be well cared for, or congregated within the walls of a single institution. Two or three prisons of moderate size are better than one of large dimensions.

It is not necessary to speak at length upon the subject of heating. Steam has come into so general use as to make its employment for heating and cooking purposes a matter of course. The boilers for generating steam will naturally be placed in a fire-proof building; and, by using proper precautions against cooling and condensing, the steam itself can be carried in pipes for a long

distance. In the Eastern Penitentiary of Pennsylvania, "five and one-half miles of iron pipe are employed in conducting steam through various parts of the premises." An equable temperature is thus maintained, and there is a complete immunity from accidents by fire.

3. The highest success in architecture must come from the complete adaptation of the building to the purposes for which it is intended. A prison is built for restraint and security, and the structure should bear the marks which will certainly indicate its uses. As a church or a cathedral should show that it was meant for worship, a dwelling-house for habitation, a mill or factory for work, a ship for sailing the seas, so a prison should be known at once by its architectural characteristics. Ornamentation is out of place. Simplicity in outline, massiveness in form, strength of construction, should be everywhere evident in a plain and unpretentious exterior. The interior arrangement should be such as to allow of modifications in size while retaining the same general features throughout. It is not necessary that the cells should all be of the same dimensions. The hope of reward has been generally conceded to be an important factor in prison-discipline, for the improvement of the prisoner. The promise of better accommodation becomes an encouragement to good behavior. The cells, therefore, can be built of different dimensions, with more light and space in some than in others. A prisoner, behaving well and deserving confidence, can be removed from a small cell into a larger one, with the understanding that a lapse will cause the forfeiture of the better and more commodious cell, and a return to his former narrow quarters. An opportunity for classification and grading upon the basis of moral improvement is also presented in this way. It will soon be known, that the best and most orderly and most trustworthy prisoners will have the largest and best cells. The removal from the poorest to the best will be a mark of distinction, worthy of some effort for attainment. Some prisoners may need solitary confinement and possibly the discipline of the dark cell; but it is hoped that the administration of prisons may find some means as effectual as either of these for the punishment of a violation of the prison-rules. A well-selected library, moral and religious instruction, evening schools, and occasional religious meetings of a social character during the week, will be found effective in promoting good discipline and an improvement in the *morale* of the prison. Provision will be made for these in the construction of the buildings.

Sanitary requirements will demand personal cleanliness, the proper care of the sick, the prevention of epidemics, and the preservation of health. The hospital will be light, airy, well ventilated, and capable, if necessary, of being isolated. Bathing-arrangements will be ample and convenient, and the laundry will be supplied with every facility for washing the clothing and keeping it in proper order. The question of introducing a water-closet into every cell, as in the new prisons in Europe, in the new prison in Massachusetts, in the Eastern Penitentiary in Pennsylvania, and elsewhere, has lately become a subject for discussion. It is difficult to see how sewer-gas can be prevented from coming into the cell in which such an arrangement has been made. A night-bucket is objectionable on many accounts, unless it be kept clean. A very good kind of bucket, made of cedar and porcelain-lined, has recently come into use. The objection of having the bucket in the cell constantly emitting odors may be obviated by having it placed in an iron box built into the wall and ventilated by a duct communicating with the main ventilating shaft or pipe. Whatever mode may be adopted, personal cleanliness should be insisted upon. The prison premises will be kept scrupulously clean, and every thing needful for that purpose and for providing for the cleanliness of the person both of officers and convicts, must be supplied.

4. Economy in construction is now imperatively demanded, especially in the matter of all public works; but sometimes a generous expenditure may be the best economy in the end. It is quite certain that no one can have good and thorough work without paying for it. Cheap work in the construction of a prison is not to be thought of for a moment, if in consequence of the cheapness thoroughness is to be sacrificed. There is no need of extravagant expenditure; but there must be care, lest, in the demand for economy, a mistake be made in the other direction. Work slightly done, or done without close attention to details, is not in the interest of economy. A want of thoroughness is becoming the characteristic of our modern construction. If it should prevail in our public buildings, it would be fatal to our public repute. Thoroughness, combined with a true economy, which sometimes is obliged to expend largely at first, to accomplish the most desirable results, must certainly characterize prison-construction above all. A true economy must also have regard to the future and prospective needs of the administration. A very thoroughly-built prison may yet be inconvenient in arrangement, and expensive of

maintenance; and care should be taken that both present and future needs shall have their full supply.

In the matter of workshop-construction, no definite statement can be made, as it is evident that the kind of labor must to a certain extent determine the plan of the building. But regularity, as well as convenience, should be regarded. Abundance of light, good air, and facilities for moving prisoners and goods, should be prime requisites. I am inclined to think that workshops of one story, lighted from the top, are better and safer than any others. The necessities of the time and place, however, must decide the point.

The separation of the sexes should be rigidly enforced. There should be prisons for women exclusively, to be under the guardianship and care of women. Female convicts should never be put in charge of male officers, so far, at least, as the internal administration is concerned. The English prisons for women, and the new Massachusetts prison for women, are excellent of their kind, and in the success and admirable character of their management.

But I have already dwelt too long upon my theme; and I proceed to give, by way of illustration of what I have said, a description of the new prison in Rhode Island, completed and occupied late in the year 1878.

This prison is situated on the State Farm, in the town of Cranston, about six miles from the city of Providence. It is not only a state-prison for the confinement of convicts serving long sentences, but it is also a state or county jail, and a house of detention. I am aware that there are very serious objections to this method of bringing different classes of prisoners beneath one roof and under one system of management; but it has become, through the peculiar circumstances of the case, the traditional policy of the State, and cannot be changed at present. In its practical working we have not found, as yet, any great evil resulting from it. In building the new prison, the commissioners endeavored to avert any bad effects which might possibly be wrought. They decided to separate the different classes of inmates, as far as this could be done within the same institution. This was accomplished in two ways: 1. By dividing the prison into two distinct wings, with a central building between; 2. By breaking or subdividing the two wings, carrying back the extreme northern and the extreme southern portions, thus making four blocks of cells. A further arrange-

ment for division was made by building the cells of three different sizes, those in the extreme blocks being of the unusually large dimensions of eight feet square. We thus have a central building, with a reception-room and other rooms upon the first floor, separated from the wings by brick partitions; a guard-room upon the second floor, twenty feet in height, separated from the wings by iron gratings rising from the floor to the ceiling; and on the third floor a chapel and six lodging-rooms for night-officers, or for witnesses and debtors. We also have two wings divided into four blocks of cells.

The prison is built upon light, dry, gravelly soil. It is constructed, as I have already said, of a hard, compact blue stone found upon the farm, with granite quoins, window-sills, door-sills, and belting-courses. The yard has an area of 240,000 square feet. The buildings in the yard are of the same material, with brick quoins and granite window-sills and door-sills. The cells are built in three tiers, with an intervening passage running lengthwise through each block in the rear of the cells. They are built of brick laid in Portland cement. In front of the prison, and connected with it by an iron bridge twenty-four feet in length, is the warden's house, which is built of the same materials as the main prison. All the buildings are constructed in the most thorough and substantial manner; the work having been done by the day, under the supervision of an experienced mason. It required four years to bring them to completion. The yard-wall was built in the summer of 1875, the foundations having been laid in the autumn of 1874. The blocks of cells were also built in the summer and autumn of 1875. The outer walls of the main prison were built in 1876. The buildings in the yard and the warden's house were constructed in 1877. The season of 1878 was employed in finishing all the buildings, and preparing them for occupation.

In order to complete the account, I add a detailed description of the buildings and premises, prepared with the help of the architects, Messrs. Stone and Carpenter, of the city of Providence.

The main prison building is placed on a true meridian-line, and consists of a central building with two wings, each of which is divided into two blocks of cells, by breaking the front about midway, and carrying back for 42 feet the extreme northern and southern portions. The central building contains on the first

floor, level with the corridor floor, the reception-room for prisoners, officers' bath-room and clothes-room. On the next floor is the guard-room, occupying two stories, and connected with the keeper's house in front, and the mess-room, kitchen, and hospital in the rear, by means of two iron bridges. The bridge in front is 24 feet in length by 9 feet in width, and is constructed of fifteen-inch iron beams, supporting an iron framework, with windows, and covered with a slated roof. The bridge in the rear is constructed in the same manner and with the same materials, and is 16 feet in length by 9 feet in width. Above the guard-room is the chapel, also two stories in height, with a seating capacity of three hundred, and having a gallery for visitors. The space above the guard-room not occupied by the chapel is finished into six rooms, for lodging the prison officers on night duty, and for the accommodation of debtors. Above the chapel is a large attic-room, with stairs leading to an iron cupola upon the roof. The central building is 76 feet by 76 feet, with the corners cut off at an angle of 45° . It is 85 feet in height from the grade-level to the floor of the cupola, and is covered with a slated roof resting upon an iron frame. The reception-room, and other rooms on the first floor, are separated from the corridors by brick walls, pierced for seven windows and two doors. The guard-room, 20 feet in height, is separated from the cells by an iron cage, rising from the floor to the ceiling, with two doors opening upon iron bridges leading to the second tier of cells. The stairways leading to the chapel and officers' and debtors' rooms are protected by strong wire-work. The chapel is 70 feet in length by 45 feet in width, the platform for the chaplain's desk and for bookcases being carried back into a recess.

Each wing is broken into two, in the manner before stated. The middle northern and middle southern contain each 78 cells built in three tiers. The extreme northern and extreme southern contain each 48 cells. The total number of cells is 252. The cells are of different dimensions. The five cells on each tier in the middle wings, nearest the guard-room, are the smallest, measuring 8 feet long by 5 feet wide, with a door only. The remaining cells, 8 in number on each tier, are 8 feet in length by 6 feet 6 inches in width, having a door and grated window. The cells in the extreme wings are 48 in number in each wing, are all of the same size, 8 feet by 8 feet, and have each a door and grated window. The cells are all nine feet in height from the

bottom of the floor in one tier to the bottom of the floor in the tier above. The floors are of iron covered with Portland cement. All the corridor floors, together with the floors for the reception-room, guard-room, and chapel, are of Portland cement laid upon brick arches, supported by iron beams.

The cells are arranged in each wing in two blocks, separated from each other by a passage-way in the rear, six feet in width, with a gallery for each tier. A ventilating-pipe is carried from each cell into this intervening passage, where the pipes are collected in groups of six enclosed in tin cases, which are carried through to the attic. At that point the pipes are separated, and pass, at equal distances apart, through the ridge of the roof to the outside air. Each case is warmed by hot steam carried by a pipe through every group to the top. One-half of the pipes end in globe ventilators, the other half in cowl ventilators. It is believed that complete ventilation is thus secured. An observation-hole is pierced through the rear wall of each cell, permitting the inspection of a large portion of the interior.

The exterior dimensions of the main building are as follows: central building, 76 feet by 76 feet; middle wings, each 109 feet by 64 feet; extreme wings, each 83 feet 6 inches by 68 feet. The total length is 461 feet. The width of the corridors is 15 feet. The walls of the cells are of brick laid in Portland cement, and are 12 and 16 inches thick.

The height of the walls in the wings is 33 feet to the eaves; the height to the ridge-pole is 47 feet from the grade level. The roof is of wood, and is slated. The lines of the roof are broken by ten gables, in each of which is a window admitting light to the attics. Each gable ends in a chimney, to which pass two flues, with openings at the level of the corridor floors for purposes of ventilation. Beneath the entire building is a cellar-room, 6 feet 10 inches in height, with 18 windows for the admission of light, and with provision for the entrance of an abundance of fresh air. The foundations of the blocks of cells are 11 feet in thickness; the foundations of the walls are five feet, and the walls themselves are four feet in thickness, including the brick backing and air-chamber between.

In the rear of the central building, and running to the west, are the mess-room 42 feet by 70 feet; an octagonal building 57 feet by 57 feet, with the kitchen, 54 feet by 54 feet, on the first floor, and the hospital of the same dimensions on the second floor; and

the boiler-house 35 feet by 40 feet. From the kitchen is built a chimney-stack 98 feet in height, containing four flues, with a central brick cone 42 inches in diameter for boiler-flue. The mess-room is furnished with tables and stools for the accommodation of 224 men. The kitchen has two large and two small Robbins's ovens, and four cooking-kettles (three of 80 gallons and one of 10 gallons), with every facility for washing, cooking, baking, &c. The boiler-house contains four Mills's sectional boilers, a forge, and a steam-pump to be used in case of fire. The hospital is very light, airy, and well ventilated through four fireplaces in the chimney. An iron cage is built so as to enclose the central part of the room, with a passage around it about six feet in width. The north-eastern portion of the room is partitioned off for bath-room and doctor's office. This building is roofed with wood, and slated. The boiler-house is roofed with iron, and slated. Beneath the building is ample cellar-room,—a portion 8 feet in height for storage of supplies, and a portion 14 feet in height for storage of coal. On each side of the boiler-house there is also a coal-cellars 9 feet by 38 feet, and 10 feet in depth.

The workshop, two stories in height, is placed at a distance of 60 feet from the boiler-house, and runs north and south. The building is composed of two wings, each 100 feet in length by 50 feet in width, and a central portion 60 feet by 40 feet. There is also an attic for storage, 12 feet in height. The entire building is 62 feet in height from the grade-level to the ridge-pole. There is no cellar under the workshop, but a space of about two feet is left for the circulation of air. The central portion of the building contains a bath-room with twelve tubs, and facilities for doing a certain amount of laundry-work. There is also ample room for an engine for power if needed, and for offices. The lower story is partitioned off from the central part; but the upper story is left clear, that temporary partitions may be placed where they are needed for dividing the room into different shops.

The prison-yard has an area of 240,000 square feet. The wall runs back from the prison 400 feet on either side. The rear wall is 600 feet in length. A granite sentry-tower, octagonal in form, stands on each corner. The wall is 20 feet in height, 5 feet in thickness at the bottom and 3 feet in thickness at the top, covered with granite coping 3 feet 10 inches in width. Along the coping runs an iron rail for the protection of the patrolling officer. The yard is entered by two gates, one at the north of the prison build-

ing, the other at the south. The north gate, which is now in use, is protected by an interior wooden trap and gate, of the height of the wall, made of eight-inch wooden timber. The south gate is kept closed and securely fastened. The gates are made of wood lined with boiler-iron. Provision is made for a third gateway, in case a railroad should be built to the prison, so that a train of cars can run into the yard. The entire length of the yard-wall, running from the south-west corner of the prison building, and returning to the north-east corner, is 1,539 feet.

In front of the central building is the keeper's house, three stories in height, and arranged in two tenements,—the south for the warden's family, the north for the deputy warden's family and the day-officers. The main house is 52 feet by 47 feet. The ell is 46 feet by 24 feet. The warden's tenement contains fifteen rooms, with closets and bath-rooms. The deputy warden's tenement contains ten rooms, with closets and bath-rooms. The second story in the ell — reached by a flight of iron stairs from the driveway between the house and the prison — contains on the south side the warden's private office, on the north side the prison office.

The four boilers in the boiler-house furnish steam for the cooking-apparatus and for heating all the premises. Pipes are carried into all parts of the buildings required to be warmed, and into the keeper's house. All the buildings, with the exception of the workshop, are lighted with gas, together with the interior yard, and the grounds and a portion of the highway in front. An unlimited supply of water is furnished by the force-main from the reservoir on the State Farm, supplemented by a line of pipe from the Pettaconsett pumping-station of the Providence Water Works. The buildings and grounds are drained by pipes laid in the yard and extending 1,000 feet outside of the prison yard wall.

In doing the work, 19,285 cubic yards of stone and granite and 3,265,000 bricks have been laid, requiring 2,787 casks Portland cement, 3,251 casks Newark cement, 2,573 casks of lime, and 5,350 cubic yards of sand. About 300 casks of Portland cement were used on the cell and corridor floors of the main building and the cellar floors of the mess-room and kitchen.

The entire cost of construction, and of furnishing both the prison-premises and the warden's house, together with grading and means of lighting the grounds, drainage, water-supply, &c., was \$458,373.56.

DEBATE ON PUBLIC BUILDINGS.

At the close of Gen. Brinkerhoff's paper, and again at the close of the paper of Mr. Woodbury, some discussion took place.

Mr. L. P. ALDEN (of Michigan) desired to know what could be done for improving the administration of public institutions when they were controlled exclusively by politics. In Ohio, not only superintendents, but servants, farmers, and even laundresses, were discharged if they did not belong to the political party in power. He thought the Conference ought to make some sort of protest against this thing.

Mr. EARLY (of Indiana) regretted that Gen. Brinkerhoff's paper did not mention the subject of ventilation. In ninety-nine out of a hundred public institutions, the odors would inform the visitor of the nature of the building, the moment he stepped inside.

Mr. G. P. RANDALL (of Chicago) described at some length the sub-earth system of ventilation invented by Mr. Wilkinson of Baltimore.

Bishop GILLESPIE pointed out some very serious defects in the construction of jails and almshouses.

Dr. HOYT said that during the existence of the Conference few papers had been read that seemed to him so important as those of Messrs. Letchworth and Brinkerhoff.

Gen. TAYLOR (of Kansas) gave from his own experience some reasons why the criminal insane should be segregated.

Mr. WINES announced that Gen. Francis A. Walker was present, having come here to confer with the Conference in regard to the collection of statistics when the census was taken in 1880, and would address the Conference in the morning.

During the Afternoon Session of June 11, the Business Committee reported a list of Standing Committees, which, as subsequently amended and adopted, was as follows:—

LIST OF STANDING COMMITTEES FOR THE YEAR 1879-80.

1. INSANITY.—Dr. J. P. Bancroft, Concord, N.H.; Dr. E. H. Van Deusen, Kalamazoo, Mich.; F. B. Sanborn, Concord, Mass.; Dr. John H. Chapin, Willard, N.Y.; Dr. Richard Gundry, Baltimore, Md.; Thomas T. Taylor, Hutchinson, Kan.; Miss M. A. Cleaves, M.D., Davenport, Ia.; Rev. Fred. H. Wines, Springfield, Ill.; and Dr. Nathan Allen, Lowell, Mass.

2. PUBLIC BUILDINGS FOR THE DEPENDENT CLASSES.—R. Brinkerhoff, Mansfield, O.; George S. Robinson, Sycamore, Ill.; M. H. Dickinson, Philadelphia, Penn.; J. H. Van Antwerp, Albany, N.Y.; Dr. W. W. Reed,

Jefferson, Wis.; Rt. Rev. George D. Gillespie, Grand Rapids, Mich.; Dr. Walter Channing, Brookline, Mass.; John B. Early, Laporte, Ind.; A. H. Knapp, Ossawatomie, Kan.; and Dr. Edward Hitchcock, Amherst, Mass.

3. DEPENDENT AND DELINQUENT CHILDREN.—William P. Letchworth, Buffalo, N.Y.; Mrs. Thomas A. Hendricks, Indianapolis, Ind.; Mrs. John L. Beveridge, Chicago, Ill.; Mrs. John Hiles, Milwaukee, Wis.; George L. Harrison, Philadelphia, Penn.; Rev. A. G. Byers, Columbus, O.; Gardner Tufts, Lynn, Mass.; A. E. Elmore, Fort Howard, Wis.; L. P. Alden, Coldwater, Mich.; and Mrs. George A. Baker, Cleveland, O.

4. PENAL AND PRISON DISCIPLINE.—Henry W. Lord, Detroit, Mich.; Rev. John L. Milligan, Allegheny, Penn.; Theodore B. Bronson, New York; Dr. Elisha Harris, New York; M. D. Follett, Marietta, O.; Albert Clark, St. Albans, Vt.; William A. Grimshaw, Pittsfield, Ill.; Charles F. Coffin, Richmond, Ind.; C. E. Felton, Chicago, Ill.; and W. F. Spaulding, Boston, Mass.

5. STATISTICS.—Gen. Francis A. Walker, New Haven; and the Secretaries of all existing State Boards of Public Charity.

6. MEDICAL CHARITIES.—Dr. J. C. Corbus, Mendota, Ill.; Dr. Harvey Jewett, Canandaigua, N.Y.; Dr. Charles P. Putnam, Boston, Mass.; Dr. H. C. Rutter, Cincinnati, O.; Dr. P. S. Conner, Cincinnati, O.; Dr. Charles E. Cadwallader, Philadelphia; Dr. John H. Vivian, Mineral Point, Wis.; C. D. Randall, Coldwater, Mich.; Dr. R. C. Thomas, Bowling Green, Ky.; Dr. C. A. Hayes, Leavenworth, Kan.; and Dr. Robert T. Davis, Fall River, Mass.

7. ON THE CAUSES AND THE PREVENTION OF PAUPERISM.—Martin B. Anderson, Rochester, N.Y.; James Roosevelt, New York, N.Y.; George E. McGonegal, Rochester, N.Y.; Moses Kimball, Boston, Mass.; George S. Hale, Boston, Mass.; H. B. Wheelwright, Newburyport, Mass.; George L. Chace, Providence, R.I.; Dr. Job Kenyon, Providence, R.I.; Thomas Cogshall, Newport, R.I.; Dr. Diller Luther, Reading, Penn.; James A. Biddle, Philadelphia, Penn.; R. D. McGonnigle, Allegheny, Penn.; Douglas Putnam, Marietta, O.; C. S. Watkins, Davenport, Ia.; Mrs. S. L. Fuller, Grand Rapids, Mich.; P. J. Boonebrake, Topeka, Kan.; Rev. A. B. Hendrickson, Janesville, Wis.; Mrs. J. Tapley, Racine, Wis.; Mrs. W. P. Lynde, Milwaukee, Wis.; and Dr. John H. Callender, Nashville, Tenn.

8. COMMITTEE ON CHARITABLE ORGANIZATION IN CITIES.—Joseph Perkins, Cleveland, O.; Seth Low, Brooklyn, N.Y.; Rev. O. C. McCullough, Indianapolis, Ind.; Rev. S. H. Gurteen, Buffalo, N.Y.; Rev. G. C. Truesdell, Chicago, Ill.; and Dr. O. W. Wight, Milwaukee, Wis.

9. COMMITTEE ON CRIMINAL LAW AND ITS ADMINISTRATION.—Theodore W. Dwight, D.D., New York; C. I. Walker, Detroit, Mich.; John W. Andrews, Columbus, O.; F. B. Sanborn, Concord, Mass.; and Prof. Francis Wayland, New Haven, Conn.

AFTERNOON SESSION.

JUNE 11.

THE first paper read in the afternoon was the following:—

THE CHARITIES OF CHICAGO.

BY E. B. M'CAGG OF CHICAGO.

The necessity and the methods to be adopted for the relief of want and misery resulting from many unforeseen causes (such as accident, sickness, strikes of workmen, sudden death), without at the same time encouraging idleness and vice, are questions which engage the attention of all densely populated communities. In places less thickly settled, the necessary carefulness and judgment are comparatively easily exercised, and the proper measure of relief reached; but in cities of great size, such as Chicago, where idleness as frequently as misfortune demands charity, such relief cannot safely be left to the discrimination of individuals, nor, because of the great amount and constant presence of suffering, can it be left to unorganized and spontaneous aid, nor to the mercy of the corporate authorities. We must have Hospitals, Dispensaries, Asylums. We need Reformatories, Newsboys' Rooms, and kindred institutions; and it is of the several agencies to these ends, that have been established and are now in active operation in this city, that I was a short time since requested to prepare a synopsis,—some general account of its local charities.

The largest measure of relief by any one agency, is that afforded by the county (and I mention it because the city and county are substantially one) through the county Insane Asylum and Poorhouse, by the distribution of provisions, clothing, and fuel, and by providing medical attendance. The public charity assumes very large proportions each year; for, besides the great number of supposed paupers who receive out-door relief from the county agent, the insane number annually some two hundred, and the inmates of the Poorhouse during the year are over eighteen hundred. The county buries the dead poor on proper application, but in the cheapest possible way. In its practical results, the system adopted, as worked out, is mischievous and hurtful.

In a report to the county commissioners, a late county agent writes, "After an experience of three years in this department of public charities, I am of the opinion that our present system of

out-door relief is in some respects very defective ; " and then, after a remark about its expensiveness, continues : " The real evil of our system of out-door relief consists in its pernicious effects upon certain members of the community ; and this evil is so much the greater by not being apparent to the general public. By close attention and long familiarity with the business, I have become convinced that one of the worst afflictions that could befall a family, would be to have the name of the head of that family appear on the relief-roll of the county. Little do the sympathetic citizens who interest themselves in behalf of their poor neighbors, and proffer their services to help them to obtain relief from the county, suspect in so doing that they are assisting to lower them into a gutter from which their chances of rising are but as one to one hundred." The county agent who thus writes gives to my mind no sufficient reason for these, to him, plainly evident results, ascribing them largely to the humiliation caused by the inquiries of a "Visitor" sent to examine into the condition of the applicants.

Plainly, the reason given is insufficient ; and the truth is, that relief is carelessly extended, and the class is enormous and only too easily increased that would rather beg than work. Pauperism arises from many causes that are but aggravated by any aid extended to it, and it is not a duty to give without question. Above all things, the motive to exertion must not be taken away.

The last detailed report of the county work which I can find, being for the year 1877, shows that 18,413 families, averaging four in a family, had been aided during the year, and that the total amount of relief given, if reduced to a basis of one month's relief to each family, would be equivalent to carrying on the rolls of the county 3,039 families, or 12,156 persons for one year, at an expense to the county of \$1.40 a month for each, amounting in the aggregate to \$204,220.80. During the same year, the county agent issued 1,955 medical orders, and buried 483 bodies ; he sent 835 persons to the Poorhouse, and disbursed in all \$215,880.50.

The expenditure at the county Insane Asylum was \$90,855.69, — the average number of employés and inmates being 511, and the *per capita* cost \$0.48^{.84}₁₀₀ per diem ; and at the county Poorhouse, \$73,912.56,— the average number of employés and inmates for the year being 950, and the *per capita* cost 0.21^{.37}₁₀₀ cts. per diem.

Next in order is the Chicago Relief and Aid Society, a chartered institution, organized to provide a permanent, efficient, and prac-

tical mode of administering and distributing the private charities of this great city, to examine and establish the necessary means for obtaining full and reliable information of the condition and wants of its poor, and to put into practical and efficient operation the best system of relieving and preventing want and pauperism. It is managed by a Board of Directors, owns the building in which its offices and rooms are established, and has been in successful operation for some twenty years. The whole theory of its management is, that charity is not a matter of feeling, but of judgment; as was tersely stated by a writer in one of our magazines not long since, that "each case must be examined, put on trial, and disposed of on its merits;" that general information must be had from time to time of the number of unemployed men in the city, and of the demand for labor, and particular information of the character and antecedents of the applicant, and of the reasons why aid is needed; that a discrimination must be made between those who are helpless from misfortune and those whose misery arises from their own default; and that to aid the willingly idle man or woman, or any one who can help himself, is in the highest degree hurtful to the person aided and to society at large. Its more immediate duty has been to extend aid to that class of worthy and industrious poor, who, by reason of sickness, accident, loss of employment or of property, have fallen temporarily behind, and to rescue them from permanent pauperism by timely assistance; to extend a helping hand to widows with dependent children, to aged and infirm people partly able to help themselves, to single women when work suddenly ceases; and, above all, to so do this, that the public may at all times have at its door an efficient agent to distribute its charities if they will have it so, and, as far as may be, to prevent the injurious and wasteful results of indiscriminate giving.

It employs paid and experienced visitors, under the immediate direction of a qualified and able Superintendent; it makes careful inquiry, and keeps a record of each case, discriminating in favor of those in whom habits of temperance and industry give promise of benefit from the aid furnished; not embracing in the sphere of its operations such as are the proper subjects for the poorhouse or the action of the county officers; and so accurate is this record, and so methodical the manner in which it is kept, that actual experience proves for some years past that out of every hundred applications the Superintendent has been able to give the

antecedents of at least seventy-five of the applicants. It is a record of the meritorious poor of the city, and of a very large number of those whose applications should be denied. It has now on this record the names of over fifty thousand persons, and the special facts affecting each case.

Its value as an organization was tested by the wide-spread destitution and want caused by the great fire of 1871. Possessing the confidence of the public, the city authorities turned over to it for management and distribution the contributions of money and property so freely sent at that time to aid the suffering people of this city ; and it speedily brought order, method, and direct and perfect supervision to the enormous burthen thus thrown upon it. Economy was sought in every way. After the first few days, in which relief was necessarily indiscriminate, systematic and reasonably assured efforts were made to defeat impositions ; to search out and aid needy sufferers ; to withhold encouragement of idleness, and to guard against extravagant or injudicious distribution. Besides the distribution of the articles of property that came under its control, it has disbursed of this fund over \$5,000,000 ; and the magnitude of its operations is evidenced by a summary of its work, or part of it, for the first eighteen months after the fire. In this period it aided 39,242 families, numbering 156,968 persons ; and it distributed during the same period 50,000 tons of coal, 16,449 bedsteads, 28,961 mattresses, 77,645 blankets, 10,855 "comfortables," 15,429 stoves, 77,000 pairs of shoes, 137,994 pieces of men's clothing, 165,000 pieces of women's clothing, 107,000 pieces of children's clothing, and fuel, food, and furniture in proportion. Carpenters, masons, tinnery, bookbinders, locksmiths, tailors, shoemakers, and workmen in almost every branch of mechanical industry were supplied with tools ; machinery of various kinds was furnished ; surgeons, dentists, and engineers were provided with instruments of their respective callings ; sewing women were aided in obtaining sewing-machines, 2,353 of these being paid for in full, and 2,065 in part, by the Society ; 9,000 houses were built and furnished, and over \$600,000 were distributed among the various charitable institutions that had been either burned or seriously crippled, — the resources of their patrons having been cut off. And money was granted in various amounts to aid applicants in the re-establishment of such business or mechanical employment as seemed to afford a sufficiently-assured prospect of yielding a support to them and their families.

Some waste was, in the beginning, inevitable. The task was immense; not only the aged, the sick, the infirm, children and women, but men also, were suddenly thrown upon the hands of the Society. The city was speedily districted, registration was resorted to at the outset, a complete staff was organized, visitors were employed, inspectors were appointed, relief stations were established, and a full report was required daily from each district. The several superintendents met the Executive Committee almost every day, to make or hear suggestions, to answer criticisms or complaints, and to report progress and suggest improvements, if possible, in the working machinery. A general inspector made frequent examinations; a Committee of Complaints was always ready to hear complaints, and, if well founded, to apply the remedy. The endeavor was to reduce to the smallest possible percentage injudicious or unnecessary relief, and to extend aid to all who were justly entitled to it.

Very many families and persons crippled by the fire yet struggled on, neither asking nor wishing aid, though seriously crippled in their resources, till the panic of 1873, and then, or from time to time at later dates, made their necessities known. The fund had been husbanded to meet just such an emergency; and, since then, over \$500,000 has been expended largely to provide for such cases. It has now been distributed,—what remains being less than the interest that the money gained while thus husbanded.

I have given, perhaps somewhat too much in detail, an account of this Society, because it has attempted in a philosophical manner so to administer charity as not to injure, or to do the least injury possible, to the giver, the recipient, and to society. Its Directors are among the most prominent of the business and professional men of the city, and they give it personal attention; the name of its Superintendent is almost a synonym for promptness, efficiency, and careful, prudent discrimination. Understanding well that pauperism is dangerous to touch, and yet cannot be left alone, they are endeavoring to deal with it in a prudent, rational, and discerning manner; to stop blind giving; to put an end to soup-houses; to discourage all indiscriminate alms without investigation.

This Society does not take the place of that kindly sympathy which leads us to help our suffering neighbor whose wants are assuredly known, nor of the considerate and delicate solicitude of

religious or other benevolent fraternities for those immediately within their own jurisdiction and charge ; but, outside of these, it aids the general public in this branch of its duties with system, and by an organization so complete, that, if the whole community would work through it, that portion of the charitable work of the city within its province would be done with method, and none duplicated. It is supported wholly by voluntary contributions, and administers its charity in the way which in each case seems most advisable. For the fiscal year of 1878 it expended \$45,620, and aided a small fraction over 1,600 families, containing, in the aggregate, over 13,700 persons,—men, women, and children. Of these families, 1,045, or about two-thirds, received aid only once ; 310, twice ; 150, three times ; so that but a few over one hundred were aided more than three times. Including the cost of disbursement, \$28.51 were disbursed for each family, or \$3.32 for each person.

Next in order in the manifold duties assumed and performed, comes the Home for the Friendless, also a chartered institution, organized for the purpose of affording protection, assistance, and employment to worthy indigent women and children, until other and permanent homes and means of support can be secured for them. It is under the direction of a board of managers, consisting of twelve ladies chosen from the city at large, and one or more ladies from such of the churches of the city and vicinage as co-operate with it ; and it has the usual staff of officers. It has a property worth about \$100,000, and a capacity for about 200 inmates at one time. As parts of its organization, it has a Home Industrial School and a Home School,—the former including the boys and girls over twelve years of age, the latter the younger children ; and also a Burr Mission, or Free Chapel, and a Burr Industrial School,—the last two, as well as the Home Industrial School, being wholly, or in the main, supported by the revenue derived from money contributed during his life, and a bequest made by the late Jonathan Burr. The Home proper is almost wholly supported by voluntary contributions. Concisely stated, its officers and lady managers seem to think and to act upon the idea that it is their duty to shelter and provide for all the women and children coming, or that are brought, to them, who are worthy, and temporarily without a home ; and in performance of such duty, they, during the year 1878, cared for 1,283 women and 639 children,—the women remaining from two days to two weeks, the

children, till homes could be provided for them. This is about the average for some years past. During the same year, its cash expenditure was \$9,928.64, besides food, clothing and fuel contributed in kind, and to a very large amount. It owns its building, grounds, and furniture, which have cost about \$50,000. It is not possible to state the average cost of each individual, because of the large amount given to it in the form of supplies.

Besides several minor institutions of which I have no statistics (and not including the Illinois Charitable Eye and Ear Infirmary, a state institution, which has cost about \$80,000, and has a capacity for 150 patients; or the Marine Hospital, a government institution), there are eight hospitals of a cost, capacity, and average number of inmates as follows:—

The Cook-county Hospital, for the treatment of all diseases except those which are contagious, which cost \$2,000,000, and has capacity for 300 patients, the average number of inmates being 250, or 83½ per cent of its capacity.

The Chicago Hospital for Women and Children, designed to afford a home, and medical and surgical aid, to women and children among the respectable poor, and to train competent nurses, and affording a free dispensary. Cost, \$30,000; capacity, 25; average attendance, equal to its capacity.

The Hahnemann Hospital, for the care and treatment of the sick and needy; cost, \$25,000; capacity, 175; average attendance, equal to its capacity.

Woman's Hospital of the State of Illinois, for the treatment of diseases and accidents peculiar to women. The building occupied by this charity is rented. Capacity, 20; average attendance 15 = 75 per cent of its capacity.

Mercy Hospital, for the care and treatment of the sick. Cost, \$150,000; capacity, 350; average attendance, 75 per cent of its capacity, or about 263.

St. Joseph's Hospital, for the care of the sick. Cost, \$75,000; capacity, 100; average attendance, 50, being 50 per cent of its capacity.

Alexian Brothers' Hospital, for the care of the sick. Cost, \$80,000; capacity, 100; average attendance, equal to capacity.

St. Luke's Hospital, for the care of the sick; value of property, \$25,000; capacity, 45; average attendance, equal to capacity.

The property of these eight hospitals is valued at \$2,385,000. Their united capacity affords accommodation for 1,120 patients.

Their average attendance is 928, being upwards of 82 per cent of their capacity.

If we estimate the population of Chicago at 500,000, the hospitals above enumerated afford ample accommodations for 9 out of every 4,000 inhabitants of the city, or in the proportion of $2\frac{1}{4}$ to every 1,000 inhabitants. The average attendance is nearly 2 for every 1,000 inhabitants of the city.

The Cook-county Hospital is maintained at the expense of the county. Some two or three of the others have small endowments; but they are in the main supported by the receipts from such patients as can pay, by voluntary contributions, and by various expedients resorted to by the ladies having them in charge, to raise money, such as lunches, concerts, and fairs.

There are three reformatories,—one for drunkards and opium-eaters, and two for erring women, having in the aggregate property valued at \$153,000, and room for 635 inmates. And seven asylums, four for orphans, having in the aggregate property valued at \$130,000, places for 700 inmates, and an average attendance of about 90 per cent; a Newsboys' Association, having property valued at \$75,000, room for 200 inmates, and an average attendance of about 50 per cent; a Foundling's Home, having property valued at \$50,000, room for 80 inmates, and usually full; and an Old People's Home, having a property valued at \$70,000, rooms for 80 persons, and at present 64 inmates, all, as required by the rules, over 60 years of age.

Several of the hospitals have free dispensaries attached to them; and there are, besides these, half a dozen or more unattached free dispensaries in different parts of the city. The buildings of these several institutions, with two or three exceptions, are good, and wisely planned for their work.

This enumeration necessarily does not and cannot include the different benevolent associations connected with various organizations in the city, such as the Free-Masons, Odd-Fellows, and the like; nor such semi-religious institutions as occupy themselves with the care of the sick at their own homes. A very considerable amount of relief is afforded in this way.

THE IOWA HOME FOR SOLDIERS' ORPHANS.

READ BY S. W. PIERCE OF DAVENPORT, IA., WEDNESDAY, JUNE 11, 1879.

Having been requested by the trustees of the Iowa Soldiers' Orphans' Home and Home for Indigent Children, to represent them in this body, I will say briefly that this Institution, located at Davenport, was organized in 1863, as a home for soldiers' orphans. Since then, twenty-three hundred soldiers' orphans have enjoyed the comforts, education, and training of this institution. In July, 1876, it was opened to all indigent children; and now, as soldiers' orphans go out, county orphans come in and take their places. The present enrollment is one hundred and forty-two: ninety-eight are the orphans of soldiers, and forty-four are county orphans. Their ages range from four to fifteen. Eighty-two are boys, and sixty are girls. Children are now sent to us through the supervisors of the several counties in the State. They are received as young as two years old, and can remain with us till they are sixteen, when they are returned to a parent or guardian. An extended correspondence is kept up with them after they leave us, with a view to know where they all are, and how they are doing, as well as to keep up the homelike feeling and relations begun at the institution.

The Home is conducted upon the cottage plan; the buildings enclose about six acres, in the central portion of a beautiful twenty-acre tract, and are built in the form of a hollow square, all facing the centre. They were originally Government barracks, in use during the late War. In many cases children, while in the Home, have occupied the same building that their fathers occupied while waiting marching orders. The buildings were given to the State by the General Government, to be used as a home for soldiers' orphans. At this time they are rather dilapidated, except a chapel, two new brick cottages, and a laundry, recently built at a cost of nine thousand dollars. These buildings are neat, substantial, and comfortable; and are located with a view of erecting others from time to time, as we have the means, till a complete collection of neat cottages shall be built, on each side of one central administration building. The cottage plan is not the most showy, but the most comfortable and healthful. If it is the more expensive to maintain for help, food, fuel, lights, general repairs, &c., it is the less so for physicians and medicines. Its successful management

requires greater labor on the part of superior and subordinate officers, but the children are more readily graded and classified; and it is more healthful and homelike. My experience leads me to say, that I think the cottage plan far preferable to the congregate, or hotel plan, for public institutions.

The allowance per annum for each child supported with us, is one hundred dollars; and this we spend. Attention is given to industrial pursuits, to as great an extent as our limited means will allow. The principal employment of the boys is farming, gardening, and raising small fruits; while the girls are employed at knitting, sewing, ironing, cooking, and general housework. There are, belonging to the Home, forty acres of land; from ten to twenty acres of other land are rented for cultivation. It is our aim to see that no child spends any time in idleness. The children are taught for nine months in the year in graded schools of a high order. The health of our children has always been remarkable. We have never had a case of diphtheria, scarlet or typhoid fever. From August, 1869, to January, 1873,—three years and five months,—with an average daily attendance of three hundred and eight, we had no death. For the last two and one-half years, with an average daily attendance of one hundred and forty, we have had no death.

Our work is steadily gaining ground, as the masses become familiar with its success. County officials are often afraid of the expense to their county, and so decline to send needy children to us. The average legislator is willing to provide for the maintenance of penal institutions, because he must, in order to protect his home and little ones; yet he too often sees no necessity for sustaining charitable institutions. Of those cared for in our Home, ninety-nine per cent have become useful citizens. From what I know of the ancestry and natural inclinations of our inmates, I feel that ten per cent of them, had they been left without the education, training, and care of this Home, would to-day have been supported as criminals. I wish to raise my voice for war against allowing children to be supported in almshouses. Like begets like. County officials need educating in this matter. The masses need it; legislators need it.

The children are the hope of the state and nation. I trust that we may each gain renewed strength by our intercourse here; and be better prepared to infuse into the masses, and all in authority in our land, a lasting purpose to protect, care for, and properly

THE TAYLOR ORPHAN ASYLUM, RACINE, WIS. 155

educate the unfortunate poor, and especially the youth. This duty we owe to them and to ourselves. It is a noble work. It is Christlike, and will be successful.

Following Mr. Pierce's account of the Orphan's Home in Iowa, Mr. Milligan read the following statement, furnished by the managers of

THE TAYLOR ORPHAN ASYLUM, RACINE, WIS.

This institution is situated three miles south-west of the city of Racine, Wis. It was founded by Mrs. Emeline Taylor, widow of Isaac Taylor (himself an English orphan, and an old resident of Racine); and, in pursuance of his wishes, Mrs. Taylor's will gave, after liberal bequests to her relatives, besides \$65,000 to Racine College for the education of orphan children of Episcopal clergymen in the State of Wisconsin, the residue of her estate to five lady trustees to erect an Orphan Asylum in Racine County, and to support the same; this Asylum to be open for the reception of all orphan children in said county, and such other poor, neglected, and destitute children as the managers, by law or their rules, should agree to receive. On the eighth day of June, 1867, the trustees organized, and soon purchased a farm of forty acres of land, and erected a building thereon, which was opened for the reception of children in July, 1872. The institution, after the purchase of the lands, the erection of buildings, and all expenditures incident to organizing and starting, now has funds on interest, secured by mortgages on real estate, and bonds amounting to \$140,000. The lady trustees are required by the will to elect annually four male members to act with them as a board of directors; and the board is also required to render an account to the circuit-judge at the first day of the March term each year.

The institution has a commodious and comfortable schoolroom, where, under the charge of an efficient lady principal, the children are taught the common branches of English education. There is also a chapel in the buildings, in which Sunday services are regularly held, and a Sunday school organized. There are at present upwards of fifty children in the Asylum, from the infant in arms to those old enough to be placed out. It is the aim of the managers to give the children such instruction and training as shall make them self-reliant and industrious. The girls are early required to assist in all the duties pertaining to household work, such as

cleaning, sewing, washing, cooking, &c.; while the boys render active help in cultivating the farm, and attending to the stock. In this way it is hoped to develop correct moral principles, and make them industrious and useful members of society, and give them, as far as it may be possible to do so, a home that shall be remembered with gratitude and affection. Quite a number of children have been placed out where they are earning their own living. Some have been apprenticed to useful trades; while one of the girls, showing a decided musical talent, has been furnished with the opportunity to study in that direction, and will soon be able to support herself as a teacher of music.

The institution is under the immediate management of an experienced matron, assistant matron, and teacher. The trustees are Mrs. J. Tapley, *President*; Mrs. C. E. Dyer, Mrs. G. Murray, Mrs. M. Perine, Mrs. J. Weed. The directors are M. B. Erskine, *Treasurer*; W. K. May, *Secretary*; H. Beebe and B. Bones.

Mr. Joseph P. Noyes then read his report concerning

THE SUSQUEHANNA VALLEY HOME AND SCHOOL FOR
INDIGENT CHILDREN, BINGHAMTON, N.Y.

This home is located just outside the city limits of Binghamton, Broome County, N.Y. It was organized about eight years ago, under a general law of the State of New York relating to religious and charitable corporations, for the purpose of providing a suitable home, school, and training-place for the children then in, or afterwards liable to be in, the county poorhouses of the State, and to place them in good and proper homes, in private families, from time to time, as might be found expedient. The end in view was, and is, to divert the stream of pauperism, as near as possible, at its fountain head, and to convert it, to the greatest possible extent, into material which shall be of use rather than harm in the structure of the Commonwealth. It is the policy of the institution to conform the daily life of its inmates, as nearly as may be, to that of an ordinary, thrifty, moral, and religious family, and to avoid every thing which would remind them that they are a public charge.

The institution occupies a farm of forty-five acres, most beautifully situated on the bank of the Susquehanna River, overlooking the city of Binghamton, the land lying from thirty to seventy feet

above the river level. The buildings, having been erected for other uses, are not entirely well adapted to the needs of the Home, but answer its purposes fairly. It now contains one hundred and twenty-five children, between the ages of two and sixteen, from nine different counties. These children are committed to the Home by the superintendents of the poor of these counties, instead of being sent to the county poorhouses. During the last twelve months there have been —

Returned to parents	5
Returned to superintendents of counties	6
Transferred to other institutions	13
Homes found for	77

Commitments have kept the average number of inmates about the same during the year; but as the old stock removed from the poorhouses disappears, and is replaced by fresh commitments, the average age diminishes, so that an increase of help for the care of children of tender age has been from time to time necessary. There have been but six deaths in the Home during its history, four of which were from an epidemic seven years ago, one from chronic disease, and one from accident during the past year.

The institution claims the especial notice of this convention only as a pioneer effort in the solution of the problem of *hereditary pauperism*. It had its inception in a suggestion of some members of the present State Board of Charities of New York, and its success has contributed to the passage of a law now in force compelling the removal of all sound children from the poorhouses.

DEBATE CONCERNING CHILDREN.

Mrs. Henry Sayers, the president of the Chicago Protestant Orphan Asylum, gave a very interesting report on the work and aim of that institution. She said this institution was twenty-nine years old, and was supported by voluntary contributions. It received orphans without regard to race or religion. Last year it received 168 children, and sent out 170. The average number of inmates was 110, and there were four deaths last year.

Mr. Richie made a statement regarding White's Manual-Labor Home, near Wabash, Ind.

J. W. Skinner, superintendent of industrial schools of the city of New York, reported in reference to the work in the Children's

Aid Society in that city. He said that last year Mr. Brace placed out in homes of the West 4,000 children, sheltered 14,234 in lodging-houses, and educated 9,000 in the schools. His assistants went through the city collecting children into schools (giving food and clothes when needed), and six lodging-houses, where food and shelter were furnished at nominal rates to the children engaged in street trades. Mr. Brace long ago organized a system of Western transportation, sending the children at first to Indiana, then to Illinois, and now to Kansas. The boys liked it, and did well. In all, forty-eight thousand children had been sent out from New York. Agents were sent out occasionally to see how these little emigrants were getting on. Every two weeks a party of from fifty to one hundred children left New York for the West. This was checking pauperism and crime. The society was organized in 1853. In 1860 the commitments of youth for vagrancy and small crimes numbered 5,880. The corresponding commitments in 1876 were 1,666. In 1863 1,133 girls were committed for petit larceny, and in 1876 the number was reduced to 496. Local committees were organized in advance in towns where the boys and girls were to be distributed; and this committee attended to sending the children into families, and maintained an oversight over them. Besides, Mr. Fry of Chicago, the general agent of the society, devoted himself to looking after the boys. The children thus sent out were not indentured.

Dr. Byers thought Mr. Brace dumped car-loads of children in the West, where the people took them in as a matter of humanity, but without that solicitude for their real welfare that ought to be provided. The reduction of juvenile crime in New York might be attended by an increase of juvenile crime in the West.

Mrs. Louisa Rockwood Wardner said, that in a part of the poor-houses of this State, outside of Chicago, there were over 700 children. In Chicago there were 1,200 children needing immediate attention. She thought the people of the West should find homes for their own poor children before they furnished homes for the 10,000 children sent from New-York City to the State of Illinois. She was satisfied that these children did not stay long in the homes where they were first placed. Many of them became tramps.

Mr. L. P. Alden of the State Public School, Coldwater, Mich., said that his institution had in five years received 731 chil-

dren. These children were placed out, care being taken to adapt the children and their homes to each other. In five years 351 children, one at a time, had been placed in homes. In the different counties there were agents who looked after the children, and whose indorsement had to be obtained by applicants for children; Mr. Alden selecting the children according to the condition and disposition of the applicants. In last October Mr. Alden had reports from 176 children in families. All but thirteen were doing fairly to first-rate. Incorrigible, invalid, and feeble-minded children were returned to the counties. The children were sent by probate judges, and came from the indigent class. Eighty to eighty-five per cent promised to become respectable citizens. A very careful history of each child was kept. Mr. Alden denied that a poor or average home was better for miscellaneous children than the best institutions. He had learned to prefer a good institution for bad children to any homes except the best ones.

Mr. Spalding of Massachusetts described the way that State took care of its criminal children. When a child was arrested for the first time, a representative of the State attended the trial. With the consent of the judge, the boys might be turned over to the State without trial, and placed in a home.

He also described methods to rescue young offenders from the contaminating influences of imprisonment. A ticket-of-leave system had been carried into effect in the case of women in the Reformatory Prison. There was no trouble about finding places in the best families for these indentured women. Mr. Alden said that no court in Michigan could send a boy to the Reform School without the consent of the local representative of the State Board.

Mr. Letchworth pointed out several objectionable features in the Massachusetts system.

On the general question of furnishing care for dependent children, remarks were also made by Mr. Early of Indiana, Mrs. Henry Sayers, Mr. M. D. Follett, Mr. Culver, Mr. R. D. McGonnigle, Mr. Seth Low, Mr. H. H. Giles, Mr. A. E. Elmore, Rev. F. H. Wines, Dr. Cadwallader of Philadelphia, Mr. Lord of Michigan, and Mrs. H. M. Gouger of the Indiana Social Science Association.

Mr. Early said his State had suffered from the children sent out from New York. A large percentage of boys placed in families, who seemed to be "saved," turned up in the State prison. Crime

was a terrible thing, not to be eradicated easily. In many bright boys conscience was wholly extinct.

Mr. Follett of Ohio spoke of the Washington-county Home for Children, which grew out of the philanthropy of Mrs. Catherine Ewing.

Mr. Culver of the Reform School at Pontiac, Ill., said he had heard a good deal about reforming good boys. He wanted to know how to reform bad boys. Boys were sentenced to Pontiac for crime, and had to be treated as criminals. The law didn't allow granting them any liberties. Boys were sent there from Chicago for burglary for only a year or two, and yet the school authorities were blamed for discharging the boys unreformed.

Mr. Seth Low of Brooklyn defended the practice of sending children from New York to the West. Their chances of growing up respectable were far larger so.

Mr. Skinner said Mr. Brace sent Mr. Fry to all the penal institutions of the West, and he found in them only a very few of the boys sent from New York. New-York papers were complaining that the best boys were being picked out, and sent West.

Mr. Elmore of Wisconsin said that every New-York boy that went to Wisconsin that he knew any thing about, with the exception of one African, had gone to the bad.

Mr. Giles of Wisconsin related some facts corroborative of Mr. Elmore. He knew only one boy who turned out well. New York licensed thousands of saloons to make delinquent children, and it ought to take care of its own delinquent children. In Wisconsin children were not retained in poorhouses.

Mr. Early said, that, when Mr. Brace published the results of Mr. Fry's investigations, scores of his boys were in the Indiana institutions.

Mr. Wines spoke of the exaggerated reports of the number of delinquent children who are reformed. He argued in behalf of homes in preference to institutions.

Mrs. H. M. Gouger of Lafayette, Ind., said the cruelty of officers of institutions was generally found out; but it was otherwise with private persons. Once a car-load of Mr. Brace's children came to her town. The ladies who were notorious for being unkind to servants, snatched up the little girls; and Mrs. Gouger witnessed a case of outrageous cruelty by a fashionable lady on a slender girl ten years old, whom she had taken. Mrs. Gouger preferred institutions to any but good homes.

EVENING SESSION.

JUNE 11, 1879.

At the evening session, Gen. Brinkerhoff in the chair, Mr. W. P. Letchworth of New York, as Chairman, read the following

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON DEPENDENT AND DELINQUENT CHILDREN.

The Committee on Dependent and Delinquent Children have made no attempt to deal with this broad and intricate subject as a whole; but have been content to consider certain branches of it, in those aspects with which some of the members have acquired familiarity through personal experience. From the outset, woman's effort in the work of "child-saving" has been appreciatively recognized; but in this country it is thought that opportunities sufficiently ample have not been given her to teach the world those lessons acquired while in the quiet pursuit of that labor, to which, for many reasons, she has been peculiarly fitted. In Europe, the late Miss Mary Carpenter, and other women distinguished for their labors of love in this direction, have spoken to good purpose of their methods, and have given the work intelligent guidance. In America, women in this field have been mainly workers rather than writers, organizers and founders rather than exponents of methods and systems. For example: in the State of New York, the first institution for orphan children, the Orphan Asylum Society at New-York City, was begun by the energetic efforts of Mrs. Isabella Graham, of honored memory, and a few earnest women, her associates. In Albany, as well as in Utica and elsewhere, work of like character was inaugurated in each instance by earnest women imbued with a true missionary spirit. The Nursery and Child's Hospital, at New-York City, one of the grandest charities of the State, is a monument to the untiring energy of a noble-hearted woman; while in Brooklyn, New-York City, Buffalo, and other places, large institutions for dependent children have been established and successfully carried on by sisters of the various orders of the Roman Catholic Church. But these good women, extended as their experience has been, have given us no adequate record of their matured opinions as to how such work may be most successfully conducted.

Your committee interpreted the desire of the last Conference of

Charities, held at Cincinnati, to be, that at this Conference an opportunity should be given for woman to speak of her experience in this important work, and to present her views of it from her standpoint. By the request of the Committee, three papers will be presented, prepared by ladies who have had large experience in various fields of children's work, and whose labors in each case in this good cause have extended through years of steady effort.

The paper of Mrs. W. P. Lynde, of Wisconsin, treats of prevention in some of its aspects, and directs our thoughts to the necessity of adopting preventive measures in arresting pauperism and crime. The importance of effort in this direction cannot be over-estimated, and, it must be conceded, is based on the soundest principles of prudential wisdom.

The work of Mrs. Clara T. Leonard in Massachusetts, and the changes wrought in the Springfield Almshouse and Truant School of that city, which have attracted attention beyond her own State, have especially fitted her to speak upon the subject of family homes for dependent children.

Perhaps the most difficult branch of the subject, and the one on which most solicitous thought is now being bestowed, is that treated by Mrs. L. R. Wardner of Illinois, in her paper on the care of girls in reformatories. Her philanthropic labors in behalf of this class in her own State have prepared her to speak advisedly upon this subject.

In view of the practical knowledge possessed by these authors, and the study they have given to the topics upon which they speak, the Committee believe that the papers are worthy of careful consideration; and, while expressing their obligations to the writers, they at the same time congratulate the Conference upon the presentation of these contributions.

For the Committee,

W. P. LETCHWORTH, *Chairman.*

PREVENTION IN SOME OF ITS ASPECTS.

BY MRS. W. P. LYNDE, OF MILWAUKEE, WIS.

The failure of preventive measures to accomplish their humane intention; the uncertainty whether the dependent and delinquent classes are actually diminished by all the efforts made to do it; an inquiry into the causes of failure, and a search for some system that will secure better results, or some means by which the very

young may be taken early enough, and kept long enough, to prevent the formation of incurable habits of wrong-doing, and accomplish the formation of habits of well-doing, may perhaps wisely occupy for a little time the attention of workers and thinkers in these charitable and preventive departments of social science.

Must the children of criminals and drunkards, the illegitimates and foundlings, be considered hopelessly delinquent and dependent? Is the hereditary taint too inherent in the constitution to be arrested, and healthy development secured? Or are the conditions of their existence such as renders their elevation into respectability or soundness impossible?

How can we reach the germ and prevent its development into self-perpetuating evil? Industrial education and training have seemed to promise most for the help of this class, and their success in a small degree fulfills the hopes raised, but falls so far short of the expectation as to justify inquiry into the cause of this disappointment. A late Cyclopaedia, in the article "Industrial Schools," says, "Attempts to ingraft an industrial feature upon voluntary schools have not been rewarded with much success, at least as regards their usefulness to the lower classes; and, in the British Revised Code, the grants formerly made to such schools were discontinued."

Such testimony is unfortunate and discouraging. For the most part, industrial schools have been State schools, in the sense of being supported and managed entirely by State authority. They have been established as measures demanded by the public after this fashion: a petition, more or less numerously signed, is sent to the State legislature, setting forth the need in general terms, and asking for the establishment of an industrial school. The legislature receives, hears, discusses, and debates; and if "the party" decides it will be popular, or if the influence is strong enough, the bill, containing an appropriation, is passed, and sent to the governor, who approves, and appoints commissioners to select a location. These commissioners, probably selected because of political influence, or as a reward for party services, proceed to visit different localities, and, as a rule, select the place where the donation to the State is largest. They, or some new appointees, are empowered to advertise, decide upon plans, build, and make ready for the purpose. In due time the governor is informed of the completion of the structure, which has been

erected with the view of *improving* the locality, where somebody has been so generous as to make a large donation of *unimproved* property.

The building — “an imposing structure, a credit to the munificence of the State” — is a monument to the architect, who in all probability has made the convenience and health, physical and mental, of its occupants the last consideration in his plans, and whose memory will doubtless be perpetuated in the suffering of all who occupy the building, and regret that it is not the mausoleum of his labors in that line, or his own living tomb. After consultation with party leaders, the governor, “with due consideration,” appoints some zealous political friend to the responsible position of superintendent of the new institution; and kindly suggesting that Mr. A or Mr. B would be valuable assistants, informs him, that, in order that the school may accomplish the good intentions of its founders, it is expected it will be conducted in harmony with the — party. Advertisements, circulars, perhaps agents, are sent throughout the State to gather in facts and children, the new building is filled, and the industrial school inaugurated. Time passes: some are received who ought not to be; many are left out who should be in; some are benefited, some are made no better; and the beneficial influence of industrial schools is considered by the people doubtful, their management questionable. The truth is, nobody, or at least few except the managers and directors, know any thing about the actual conduct of the school, the condition of the children, their education, or training.

Indeed, it is nobody’s business except the trustees’ or (where one exists) the State Board of Charities’; and their visits are so infrequent that they can become cognizant of very little that transpires. The people — those whose interest lies nearest to these who are to have place in life among them, and who should be reared to take part in the world’s work with them — actually have nothing to do with them, know nothing of them; and the children remain as truly outcast and friendless as before they were sent to the school. As those directors or trustees are supposed by the public to be best who maintain a given institution the cheapest, it is usually thought well to adopt the industry that will pay best. So all the hundreds of boys are taught, without any regard to their fitness for it, the same trade. All make shoes, or chairs, or boxes; and so the State sends out an army of shoemakers or tailors; and the young Ishmaelite goes forth with all the trades-

unions in array against him, and his hand more emphatically against every man than before.

The use of money, economy, thrift, the value of small savings, individual responsibility, and self-reliance, or self-conduct, he has never learned, and had no opportunity to learn, in the systematized mechanical routine of a well-ordered institution. Any training adapted for the development of a peculiar talent, or no talent, of an individual, is almost impossible in an institution; and where hundreds are gathered, and taught by a few teachers, the system necessitates wholesale management; and admits of no variety in detail, or at least very little. Number one is known and taught as number one; and number one or ten thousand is trained as nearly like number one as the perfectibility of the system permits or renders possible. The human product is tolerably well finished off, and turned out; and, if he chances fortunately to get into the groove that fits him, he may run well for a season, or until some turn of fortune slips him out of the groove, when he is as helpless as the ditched engine, and but too often is returned to the school that trained him, or the house of correction, or the poorhouse, and ends life a dependent or a convict.

I would by no means be understood as implying that our State industrial schools are not doing good work: I believe many a young boy is saved from becoming a dependent or a criminal by the training he has received in them. But they do not seem to be doing all they ought, or what might reasonably be expected of them; and I believe the fault lies in the system or method of organization. To my thought, no State, under any system of government that we would accept as *free*, can commence early enough to prevent such children as we have mentioned from being reared in the condition of their birth, or continued long enough to prevent their following, in large measure, the course of life their parents do. The enginery of state is too cumbrous, too far removed from the individual, to be able to touch the small beginning, and bend the twig in time to save the wrong incline: indeed, it can scarcely be supposed to know the existence of the little germ, and only becomes cognizant of the developed monstrosity. We want something that will bring the outcast into closer relations with caste,—some means whereby separation of classes shall be made less wide, and the differences between higher and lower, the known and unknown, lessened; something more like family-life, with its many-sided development and varied interests and occupations, and

where the woman-element shall pervade the house, and soften its social atmosphere with motherly tenderness; something that shall bring the sympathy, charity, and help of private citizens into action, along with the force and form of legal strength and public support, and enlist the watchful interest of the community in these children as it is in those of other and ordinary public schools, and bring them out of the class of dependents and delinquents into the normal conditions of ordinary life.

Connecticut has one such school for girls in Middletown: private charity inaugurated and endowed it, and the State pays for the girls it sends there the same amount it pays for prisoners in the county jails. By the aid of private benevolence, this sum educates, clothes, and trains to habits of industry, and watches over until their majority is attained, those committed to its care; and for the most part gives back to society, out of the crude material sent, useful, valuable citizens. Each one of these has some guardian or friend who looks after her conduct and interests, and keeps her out of the class of friendless outcasts, and maintains her hold on society.

The legislature of my own State (Wisconsin), in 1875, passed an "Act authorizing Industrial Schools," that embodies more of these principles, and contains provisions more in accord with them, than any other I am familiar with. It provides that "any number (not less than twenty) of ladies, or ladies and gentlemen, may unite in organizing an industrial school" (Sect. 2). "They may make such rules and by-laws, elect or appoint such officers, agents, or committees, as may be deemed necessary for the management and conduct of the school for the accomplishment of its objects and purposes" (Sect. 5). The classes of children that may be sent by magistrates is defined, and includes all those usually embraced in the lists of dependent and delinquent, as well as destitute; and prescribes the duty of the "magistrate before whom any such shall be brought, if satisfied on inquiry of fact that the welfare of the child will be promoted thereby, to send it to any such industrial school" in its own county or some other, as the case may be, at the expense of the county where the child resides, until it arrives at the age of twenty-one years; unless otherwise discharged or provided for. It also provides that any such school may receive children from parents or guardians on similar terms. Section 8 requires the officers or managers to instruct such children in such branches as are suited to their years and capacities,

and especially cause the girls to be taught domestic avocations and industries. The managers have power to give out for adoption or bind as apprentices, in their discretion, or return to parents or friends if deemed for the best interest of the children.

This Act contemplates the establishment of such schools in such places, at such times and under such circumstances, as their need comes to be felt, and provides for their control and conduct by the people interested in their establishment, and those who would, by personal attention and service, contribute to their success. It also provides that women alone, or women and men, but not men alone, may incorporate themselves under the statute.

The Chief Justice of the State (Ryan), in an able opinion upon the constitutionality of the Act, says: "Thus no industrial school can be without the sex which is by nature best qualified for the nurture of children. Such charities are best committed to women, in whole or in part; and in such lies the truest and noblest scope for the public activities of women, in the time which they can spare from their primary domestic duties. Such a statute, so framed and so guarded, is not an arbitrary assumption of meddlesome authority outside of the proper function of legislation, but is evidence that public charity is here losing the offensive and oppressive character sometimes attributed to it."

In every community there are people with time and inclination to do something towards making the world better, to help in purifying and elevating our civilization, and advancing the highest interests of those among whom they live. They neither have nor desire political influence or place, but are ready to give of their talent and time to work for such benevolent or charitable purposes as may lie within the circle of their lives. These are largely women, with no higher duty of domestic life demanding their first thought: widows, unmarried women, or women without children, with ability, and often money, and a conscientious desire to do something that will fill their own lives, and make for the good of humanity. These do often inaugurate and successfully conduct benevolent enterprises, that fail to accomplish the highest possibilities for want of authority and means to continue the growing magnitude of their undertaking. By co-operating with such, the State could often accomplish more of good than in any other manner; and why this is "outside the scope of the proper function of legislation" is, to my thought, inexplicable. It would seem that the

nearer we can bring the government to the people, and secure their personal interest in it, the more nearly we have reached the intent of the grand declaration, "that government exists by the consent of the governed," and the more likely we shall be to perpetuate the security and stability of a government that rests on such a foundation. That the right of suffrage, or its exercise, gives the exclusive right to participation in public interest, I cannot believe is claimed by any; but the principle that the state may not give any aid to, or co-operate with, private citizens for such purposes, would actually exclude nearly all women from any part in those tasks of charity, prevention, and reform, that constitute so much of the best work of the world.

In Milwaukee, a school was organized under the provisions of this Act, conducted by ladies, with a board of gentlemen council-lors, and has been in existence over four years. During this time it has had under its care nearly two hundred children of various conditions and characters; some, also, who have not come under police supervision, and are received as charity pupils, at the solicitation of parents or guardians. Indeed, so little is the school considered a penal institution, or any odium attached to it, that the managers are more troubled to keep refractory and undisciplined children out than to bring them in. Guardians and parents appreciate the separation from evil influences, and beg to have children whom they cannot keep from corrupting influences received, and in many cases offer to pay for their support.

The statutes of Wisconsin forbid the sending to the "poor-houses any children fitted for family life." In pursuance of this law, the children of the Milwaukee-county poorhouse were committed to the school. The County Board of Supervisors refused to pay the board of these children, and a suit was brought against them in consequence of such refusal. The decision sustained the school; and the supervisors appealed to the Supreme Court of the State, which sustained the action of the school, and affirmed the decision of the court below, the Chief Justice adding, that "the general scope of these statutes reflect honor upon the legislature which passed them, and upon the State."

In 1878 the legislature granted an appropriation of fifteen thousand dollars for a building for this school, conditionally upon the school conveying to the State suitable grounds for the erection of buildings. The city of Milwaukee donated to the State nearly eight acres, beautifully located, commanding a fine view of the

lake; and a commodious building has been erected, and, since January last, occupied by the school.

The Board of Managers, through committees, supervises, controls, and keeps itself informed of, all the affairs of the institution. The by-laws require some of them to visit the school once in every two days, and it is usually visited by some one of them every day. All the purchasing is done by them; all bills audited, first by the chairman of the committee making the purchase, and finally, by the chairman of the executive committee. This committee, which meets every week, comprises in its make-up the chairman of each committee and the officers of the board. All the events of the week are passed in review, and the entire conduct and affairs of the school are known and considered by it. The superintendent is required to keep a daily journal, which is read at these weekly meetings, and approved or criticised, as the case may be. Each child is known by some of the managers, and comes into close relations with them. All are known by the children, who feel that they have friends who care for them and watch over their interests, and to whom they can go for help and counsel. Boys under ten are admitted, because there is no other refuge offered those who are under this age, and, if not provided with homes before they reach that age, are transferred or recommitted to the State Industrial School for boys. Whole families have, in several instances, been committed by the courts, one or both the parents having been sentenced to some penal institution; and but for this school the magistrates would have been puzzled to make provision for the destitute waifs that human laws and social needs had deprived of their natural protectors. The managers believe they are proving what they set forth in their memorial as their motive for asking an appropriation,—that they sought, first, to benefit the children; second, to benefit the State. The children of some families of criminals have been received so young that they can have no memories of evil or wrong, and the older ones so entirely removed from the associations of their birth, that they seem to have forgotten them, and already give promise of becoming desirable and useful citizens. Some such have been adopted into homes, their names changed, and the unfortunate heritage of a bad name and worse surroundings lost.

Can or will any State authority, or any body of men, do these things? and may not the attempt to conduct such institutions by such remote and cumbrous machinery, such an ignoring of natural

laws and conditions, be the reason why prevention and preventive measures have failed to accomplish their intent? It has been a man's attempt at woman's work, and of course a failure. When the Creator endowed woman with the sacred functions of motherhood, he added the instincts of mother-love, and the instinctive perception of child-nature, that she can no more impart to man than she can her softer voice or more delicate figure. Let the state, as does society, give to her rearing its outcasts,—those that have been deprived, by the accidents or imperfections of our social conditions, of true and honorable mother-care,—and help her, with your wiser, cooler judgment, to keep her sympathies from controlling hers. Let the state, with all the masculine wit and wisdom it can command, restrain and hedge in with provisos, precautions, and supervisions, the appropriation and expenditure of money; give to women, or women and men,—but never to men alone,—the organization, control, and detail of all institutions that have for their purpose the rearing or saving of young children. The benefit of that experience, that can be learned so well nowhere else as in their own homes, beside the cradles of their own children, the state can never buy, but they are willing to give. Their unpaid labor, and, still more, their savings and economies, will reduce the cost of such institutions below the estimates of any official stewards; and the gifts of labor and love they would give would, we believe, civilize the street-Arabs, and Christianize the home heathen, more effectually and truly than any system lacking these can ever do. We would have not such large and unwieldy institutions, with the intricate machinery of state, but smaller, more home-like places, where each child is known by a Christian name, and forms attachments, and is the object of them, and life would be more nearly like the true and lost home, and more in accord with nature's wise provision.

FAMILY HOMES FOR PAUPER AND DEPENDENT CHILDREN.

BY MRS. CLARA T. LEONARD OF SPRINGFIELD, MASS.

It is not necessary, in a paper of this kind, to enter into a long preliminary dissertation upon dependent children,—their increasing number, their condition in almshouses or in private asylums. The members of this Conference doubtless appreciate fully the fact, that in our country everywhere, even in the States where

most has been done for the benefit of the poor, we are rearing paupers and criminals on an alarmingly large scale. The exigencies of the time demand some new method of dealing with dependent children, which shall be more effectual in training them to be good citizens than any that we have hitherto practised. There is a growing conviction among philanthropists, that asylums and institutions of all kinds for the reception of children, should be only temporary places for their detention, so far as is possible. Children cannot be well reared in masses. The gradual acquirement of practical knowledge and of manual dexterity, so essential to future usefulness, is hardly possible where the number of children in a house is largely disproportioned to that of adults. In an ordinarily well regulated family, there is such a diversity of sex, age, and ability, that the younger and less capable are educated by the more experienced; imitate them, and are influenced by them, unconsciously and continually. The affections, and the moral nature also, are cultivated in family life, and are suppressed and blighted in institution life. In every way the child has great advantages in an average family over children trained in large masses. In comparing results, we find the smaller the institution, and the more it is directed by individual and voluntary oversight, the better is its work. Large public institutions, under official superintendence, usually, if not invariably, turn out paupers and criminals by the hundred. Many of these children might have been made good citizens under a more natural form of life. Their failure is not so much from inherited defects, as from the fact that moral stamina has been destroyed by a machine-life, which creates a spirit of dependence, and stultifies the affections and moral qualities.

In small private asylums, conducted by benevolent women, more attention is paid to the individual needs and capacities of children, and more care is taken to place them early in good homes, and to look after them in those homes. Consequently a far greater proportion of the children placed out from private asylums succeed in life, than of those from public ones.

Writing from my own stand-point in Massachusetts, and having been long familiar with the practical operation of our State charities, which are perhaps more extensive proportionally than those of any other State, I am compelled to admit that we have, as yet, by no means attained to great success in our official dealings with dependent children. Many good men have labored for

their benefit, and great sums have been expended by public and private munificence. We have had an elaborate system for placing out children from our State institutions into families. The "State Visiting Agency" has, however, proved a very incapable machine on the whole, and was abolished by the last legislature. It has had its use, but its work has never been wholly effectual. The theory adopted by the State, and thoroughly tested, that dependent children should be trained in large numbers in an institution until they reached a self-supporting age, and then indentured, or placed in families, has, I believe, proved a false one. A very large proportion of the children trained at the Monson State Primary School are most undesirable inmates of families. There is an increasing reluctance in our community to receive them, while the same class of children in private institutions are eagerly sought. I am often asked to procure a child from a private institution in Springfield for a family. If I reply that none are to be had there of suitable age, and suggest application to the Monson State School, the reply invariably is, "I do not want one of those children." A farmer from this county last week, applying to me for a boy from the "Hampden County Children's Aid Association," said that he was "tired of trying the Monson boys, they were so vicious and idle." This is the general testimony. The reason is easily seen. One bad child corrupts many good ones. The counteracting influences are insufficient. The life there tends, on the whole, to idleness, and stultifies all natural ambition. Much consideration of the whole subject, and long years of experience among dependent children, together with careful observation of our public charitable system, have convinced certain practical men and women in our State, that official work must be assisted and supplemented by private and voluntary work. A study of the system of the State Charities Aid Association of New York has been of great use to them in devising a plan of operation.

This plan contemplates a local committee in towns, to find homes for pauper and indigent children, and for careful visitation of children in those homes; the town committees reporting to a central bureau of registration and direction. Such an association has been formed in Hampden County, and has been in operation since Jan. 1, 1879. Although only five months have elapsed since then, and much of the time has been spent in forming town committees, raising funds, and soliciting memberships, considerable progress has been made. Ten children have been placed out.

Six of these are pauper children of tender age, who are boarded in excellent farmers' families in country towns, at a dollar and a half per week. The overseers of the poor pay this sum, and provide plain, cheap clothing. The committees of the Association find the homes, and perform the visitation. Two boys are placed out, who work for their board in pleasant Christian homes, where all the influences are elevating. Two little girls are placed in families, one of whom is paid for by private charity. Six or seven more children have applied for homes, and will soon be provided with them. The promise for the future is very encouraging. The number of applications for young children to be boarded at a low price, in most excellent families, is surprising. If the work goes on as it has begun, many children will be brought into family-life who would otherwise have grown up in poverty and neglect, or have succumbed to hardship, and died for want of proper care. The most important work of this new Association has been to secure the passage of an Act prohibiting the maintenance of children over four years of age in city almshouses. This act (Chap. 107, Acts of 1879), has already cleared the almshouse in Springfield of a large number of children, who are either boarded out in good country homes, or have been provided for by relatives. One good effect of the law will be, that parents and relatives will not be so ready to throw off the burden of support of their families, as they have been where whole families were content to settle down in town almshouses together. Another valuable result will be the permanent adoption, into families, of children who first are taken to board at an early age. Some of these will gain the affections of the persons who take charge of them. Beginning with them while young, before evil habits are formed, they will become more attractive and useful than they would have been if they had spent several years in an institution, especially if that institution had been in an almshouse, with adult paupers.

Adult paupers are frequently vicious or imbecile, or both. Few of them belong to a worthy class. Many of them are debasing companions; and the children of our town and city almshouses have, in many known instances, been fearfully corrupted. As this law gradually comes into general operation, it will redeem many children from crime and pauperism. The younger the child, too, the greater benefit will it derive from training in a family. This is self-evident. The boarding-out system, however, is open to great abuse. Official visitation alone is insufficient to protect

the child, and the tendency to excessive economy, and to make a good financial showing among overseers of the poor, must be guarded against. There is danger always that it will tempt underserving persons to try to make gains, by stinting and oppressing children. Officials are by no means all of them parsimonious, and regardless of the welfare of their charges; but sometimes they are so, and especially in small rural towns, where great wrongs are perpetrated upon paupers under a miserly system. Officials need voluntary co-operation, especially by conscientious, humane, and experienced women. This is exactly what our new Association seeks to furnish. There should be respect for law and order and for officials; and the voluntary visitation must be real, frequent, and thorough.

The introduction of children into our farming towns in Massachusetts will bring good in another way. These towns need young blood. The natural increase of population is small, the drainage by removal into cities is far greater. The rural towns are in danger of becoming depopulated, and the important work of agriculture is more neglected than any other. Every thing is good which tends to distribute population, and to get the overplus out of large towns. Children acquire a perverted taste for city life and crowded streets; but if introduced when young to country life, care of animals and plants, and rural pleasures, they are likely to enjoy these, and to be healthier in mind and body for such associations.

It is the earnest desire of many good men and women to see the wards of the State removed before they are permanently disqualified, from the evils of institution life, into respectable family homes. To do this at an early age must be chiefly by paying a small sum for board; and to secure proper care, there must be, as we have said, frequent and judicious visitation, both official and voluntary. If the State Primary School at Monson could be a mere depot for the temporary reception of children, there need never be more than from fifty to one hundred inmates at any time, instead of five hundred as at present. I believe that it might be, within six months, reduced to the lower number, by voluntary and official work combined. The younger children should be placed out first. For the older lads, there is, I believe, no hopeful future except by sending them to the far West, and separating them widely from each other and from their old haunts. This is now contrary to the policy of the State. But as most of them are idle

and unprincipled, there is no opening here for them. In our large towns, there are temptations to vice; and they will not remain in the country when sent there. Their aggregation in masses, for long periods, has developed evil traits and disseminated vice, and now they need dispersion. Let us not make more like them, but save the younger children from the same fate, by removing them from institution life before they are spoiled by it.

It is encouraging to find so many persons willing to work in this field. It requires, of course, self-sacrifice and patient labor; but can there be a more truly useful and hopeful work? Much can be done if women who possess intelligence and some leisure will enter fully into it. To those who refuse on the ground that they have no leisure, we would suggest that many things which are regarded as important duties to one's self and family, are only the multiplying of luxuries and the gratification of vanity and social ambition. By simplifying dress and amusements, by cutting off a little here and a little there from our luxuries, we may change the whole current of many human lives. Our good deeds and our evil and selfish ones, they are like stones dropped in still water, spreading ever increasing circles,—endless results from small causes.

We find already the beneficial effect of a wide-spread acquaintance with our own people, of contact with good people in other towns and other religious denominations. We foresee the breaking-down of barriers of sect, of class, and of neighborhood, and the growth of Christian sympathy and brotherhood through this and kindred charitable work. The interest in the welfare of children is more universal than any other form of benevolence. Every one also sees the value of home-training and family influence, always provided that the family be carefully selected.

A strong opposition has arisen in the Roman Catholic Church to placing Catholic children in Protestant families. The fear is that it will lead to the conversion of children to Protestantism. It will be very difficult, therefore, to provide for some of those children who most need to be separated from the life they are now living. Comparatively few Catholic families in New England are yet sufficiently intelligent and prosperous to adopt or to train the children who need homes; and, as they usually have large families of their own, it is difficult to find among them homes to be compared with those freely offered by Americans and Protestants. The Catholic clergy offer asylums of their own faith to indigent children; but here we encounter the very thing we seek to avoid,—institution training,

which, in the end, leads to nothing very hopeful when the child grows older. It is only right and just to respect the religious faith of a people, and to concede to them all that we conscientiously can. The law of the State of New York requires that the religious faith of parents be considered in boarding children in private asylums by overseers of the poor. It is, however, stated by persons familiar with the operation of that law, that children remain under it too long in a state of dependence, and do not readily find their way into self-support. The problem which we must solve is a very difficult one. The foreign Catholic population is very large. It furnishes a great proportion of our dependent and criminal class. It also furnishes us with voters and tax-payers in great numbers, and embraces many excellent and conscientious citizens. The opposition by Catholics to Protestant influence is based on real religious scruples, and must be met in a spirit of tolerance, and not by blind opposition. That which is real and enduring in the Catholic faith should be respected; and Protestants should remember how much they hold in common with Catholics, in the great doctrines of Christianity and its requirements of pure and upright life. The true way to deal with Catholic children in Protestant families would be to permit them to practise their own form of worship, to be silent in regard to their peculiar doctrines, and to inculcate a life of piety and good works. The Catholic clergy will be very ready to acquiesce in this mode of dealing by Protestant families, and to perceive a real toleration. I believe that if our people could be led to deal fairly with Catholics, many poor children might receive the benefit of a good family training, who are shut out from it by the fear of proselytism which their parents and clergy now feel.

It is my design that this paper should be exceedingly brief, and I have given only the outlines of what I believe to be a practicable plan for bringing destitute children into family homes. I have spoken only of our new-born "Hampden County Children's Aid Association" by way of illustration. It has yet only achieved a beginning, and has developed only great probabilities. The law to which I have alluded as having been secured by it was, so far as it goes, a copy of the New-York law, chapter 173 of Acts of 1875. The Association received important and indispensable aid in bringing their petition before the legislature from Mr. Moses Kimball, Chairman of the Massachusetts Board of State Charities; from Mr. Frank B. Sanborn; from two ladies who are overseers

of the poor in Brookline, Mass., — Mrs. Cabot and Mrs. Codman ; and from other benevolent ladies in Boston.

We cannot claim any originality in our plan, as it has been suggested for many years past by the Massachusetts Board of State Charities in their Annual Reports. Dr. Howe and Mr. Sanborn, in the earlier reports of this Board, have dwelt upon the need of bringing children early into family life, and also upon the need of voluntary co-operation with officials by benevolent women in visitation of dependent children in private families. The later reports of the Board, especially the fifteenth and last, further urge the same necessity for voluntary aid.

The general sentiment of the more educated portion of the community is against the aggregation of children in large numbers for a long time in institutions, and is in favor of family-homes, under careful restrictions. Many judicious philanthropists also favor the placing out in families of juvenile delinquents of a certain class. I believe that a good number of the latter would improve in an orderly family, and find the best training and reformation there. Juvenile delinquents come, for the most part, from wretched and ill-governed homes. Their aggregation in large numbers only increases their evil propensities. They need dispersion even more than merely dependent children do.

To sum up, —

1. Institution life, both public and private, should be recognized only as a temporary make-shift or stepping-stone to a family-life.
2. The younger the child when it enters the family, the more hopeful will be its future in life. The longer the child remains in the institution, the greater will be the prospect that it will be a public burden always.
3. In order to bring dependent children at an early age into family-life, it will be necessary to pay a small sum for their maintenance for a time, in many cases.
4. To prevent the neglect or abuse of children by mercenary or unprincipled persons, who take them only for gain, careful supervision and visitation are indispensable.
5. Official visitation alone will never be found effectual. It must be supplemented by voluntary visitation from suitable and authorized persons, actuated by benevolent motives.
6. Local committees will be most efficient in performing this visitation, because they will have better facilities for knowing what

occurs in their own neighborhood, and will avoid the expense of travel.

7. A central board for the association, whether it be of a county or state, is necessary, to receive reports, and to see that rules are obeyed. Also to furnish a bureau of registration and reference.

8. A small sum may be paid for board; but families who will take children without payment should always be carefully sought. The payment should cease as early as practicable, and the spirit of gain in the whole matter should be carefully guarded against.

9. Religious toleration and concession must be practised, in order to make the work adequate to the needs of the time.

CLARA T. LEONARD.

SPRINGFIELD, MASS., May 26th, 1879.

GIRLS IN REFORMATORIES.

BY MRS. L. R. WARDNER, OF ANNA, ILL.

If we look back in the history of our nation a hundred, fifty, or even twenty-five years, and consider the condition of the poor, more especially the dependent children, we can see a great advance. Still there is much, very much, to be done. Public sentiment is to be aroused and interest excited; and I know of no way in which the great mass of the people can be reached so effectually, as by the publication of the results attained in conventions of philanthropists, and students of social science. Discussions of this nature are not only awaking a wide-spread and deep interest among men, but women also, arousing from their extreme conservatism, are realizing that here is a work for them to do, as well as for their fathers, husbands, and brothers.

A very large amount of time and labor, as well as money, has been expended in attempts to counteract the effects of evil, while almost nothing has been done to remove the primary cause; the policy of philanthropists and social-scientists has seemed to be, to care for and reclaim the confirmed criminal, rather than to prevent crime. In doing even this, the world moves, and men and women have waked to the consciousness that each is in an important sense his brother's keeper.

What are the history and characteristics of pauperism? Who are paupers, and from whom do they descend? It has been found that a very large proportion of this class are the direct descendants of paupers. The parents, grandparents, and even great-grand-

parents, have been inmates of the same or other poorhouses, workhouses, or prisons, and the females inmates of dens of pollution reaching the lowest depths of degradation. Is this strange in regard to women, when we consider how much harder it is for a woman than for a man to resist contaminating influences?

There is a large number of dependent children, whose circumstances of birth, parentage, and want of good home-influences, are such as to deprive them of the advantages of our public schools, particularly in those states where there is no law of compulsory education, and who are rapidly preparing to fill our prisons, workhouses, poorhouses, and, more deplorable still, the houses of ill-fame.

Who has not seen the tender and delicate features of childhood marred by neglect and dirt,—with bare feet, clothing ragged and filthy,—not the sort of a child one loves to take in one's arms and kiss; and yet even your delicate child, proud father or tender mother, deprived of your protecting care, might have descended to so low and dreadful a condition: for many of these poor children have no father or mother,—not even a brother or sister. Home is a meaningless word to them: their days are passed in the streets and alleys, their bed at night is an empty box or hatchway, their food is gathered from the refuse of the shops, their companions are degraded and vicious. Such are the conditions which, as certainly as spring brings the bursting of the bud, or as grain follows seed-time and harvest, will make of these poor children vagrants and outcasts at seven years of age, thieves at ten, ruffians at twelve, and inmates of penal institutions or houses of prostitution at fifteen or earlier. Who has not seen them, with pinched, livid, starved faces, begrimed with dirt, and in a condition which renders them entirely unfit to associate with more fortunate children, their language showing their mental and moral to be no better than their bodily condition? and who, seeing them, has not felt his heart swell with pity, and asked himself what hope is there for them if they are not cared for and removed from such associations and influences before it is too late?

Does it seem that society could have any more pressing Christian or moral duty, or one of greater importance in an economical point of view, than to care for these waifs and outcasts? It is sure to have this to do in the end, at a much greater cost, in its jails and workhouses. Is it not best to do it in the beginning, while

we can save a soul for the future man or woman, and a citizen to the commonwealth? Would it not be the better plan to purify the fountain, and to devote our labor to the prevention of sin and crime, rather than to the more difficult and less hopeful task of reforming criminals?

I find it asserted in an address delivered by the Hon. C. D. Randall, before the National Prison Reform Congress, in New York, 1876, that in the Cincinnati Prison Reform Congress there were thirty-seven declarations of principles, only one of which recommended preventive measures.

How many, in your opinion, of the degraded, unprincipled men and women of the world, would have become such if they had had good, virtuous, Christian, well-trained, and disciplined mothers? Upon whom does this great responsibility rest? Is it not the duty of the state, and is it not far more wise, as well as more economical, to take charge of, care for, and control these dependent children, — girls as well as boys, — taking them, not only from the poorhouses, where all become contaminated mentally, physically, and morally, but from the streets of our great and small cities, and even from the vile, unprincipled, debauched, drunken parents, who are rearing them by teaching and example to a familiarity with vice, that will sooner or later take them beyond the reach of help; and put them in positions and amid influences that will educate them to good citizenship? All of them may not be saved; but many may be checked in a downward career, and become, at least, self-sustaining. To show how much has been accomplished for this class in a comparatively short time, I read from a letter of the late lamented Miss Mary Carpenter of England: —

"At last, after thirty years of apparently fruitless effort on my part, the Government has accepted the necessity of searching into the hidden recesses, and caring for the very lowest before they have become criminals. The year 1876 has been in many respects a very important one in the history of the Certified Industrial School system, which aims, as is well known, not at reforming the juvenile criminal, but at preventing the ranks of the criminal classes from becoming recruited by those children who, from want of proper guardianship, are liable to frequent bad company, and thus, too often, to come within the jurisdiction of the police magistrate. According to the last report of the Inspector of Industrial Schools, only one-third of the children committed to these schools in 1875 had both parents alive and able to take care of them; while the subsequent history of those who had been discharged in the three previous years showed, that 79.2 per cent were known to be doing well, and that only 5.3 per cent had been convicted of crime. But for the timely intervention of such schools, it is certain that a very

large proportion of these six thousand children (i. e., at the rate of two thousand per annum) would have swelled the returns from our jails and prisons, and not a few would have become habitual criminals. The improvement that has taken place is remarkable. In 1836, with a population of 15,000,000, 10,125 were sentenced to imprisonment, 3,611 to penal servitude, and 4,273 to transportation to Australia; whereas, in 1875, with a population of 23,500,000, only 9,282 were sentenced to imprisonment, and 1,639 to penal servitude."

There has been a great amount of labor and money expended to reclaim this class of dependent boys; and I beg leave to show you by the statement of some perhaps uninteresting facts in regard to institutions devoted to the reformation of delinquent and dependent children, how much more widespread the sympathy and efforts of the public have been in the case of boys than of girls. I wish to ask this plain question,— and I hope there are persons present who will discuss the matter fully, giving us the benefit of their experience and observation: Shall we not, in taking the large number of young girls who are filling our city streets and alleys, our almshouses, and worse places, miscalled homes,— shall we not, in protecting and sheltering them from temptation, guiding, controlling, and training them to become useful, good, independent women, and virtuous wives and mothers,— reach the very fountain from which flow the evils we desire to arrest?

At the risk of being tedious, I will give you some statistics of a considerable number of educational and industrial institutions, quoting largely from the valuable report made by Mrs. Canfield, connected with the Bureau of Education at Washington, in 1875:—

Providence Reform-School.—Since its organization in 1850, this institution has received a total number of 2,227 pupils,— 1,770 boys, 457 girls,— about 60 per cent of whom are known to have become orderly and useful members of society.

Wisconsin Industrial School for Boys, Waukesha.—Whole number since opening in 1861 to 1878, 5,110; of this number, 129 were girls. Since 1871, boys only have been admitted (average age of boys admitted, 12 years); it being found, on trial, to be impracticable to unite the work for boys and girls in the same institution.

House of Refuge for Boys, Baltimore.—Was established in 1855, and has had 2,421 inmates. Girls were excluded by a recent act of the General Assembly.

Louisville House of Refuge for Boys and Girls.—Number of

inmates Dec. 31, 1873, 141. The female department of this house of refuge was opened in 1872. The result of this enterprise has exceeded the most sanguine expectations: already 28 girls have been admitted. The success with these girls has amply repaid the cost of the very great care, trouble, and anxiety they have given.

Massachusetts State Reform-School. — Takes boys only, from 7 to 17 years of age.

Maine State Reform-School. — All boys; fully one-third of whom, it is found, can be trusted, although many very hardened characters are among them.

Michigan State Reform-School. — Takes only boys, from the age of 10 to 16 years. It is found that, oftentimes, the age of 10 is too late, many children requiring reformatory training earlier than this.

New-Hampshire Reform-School. — Whole number of boys, 139; 47 of whom have been admitted during the year. A few girls are here, — about 20, — while there are 100 boys.

New-Jersey Reform-School. — Was established in 1867; since then 534 boys have been in its care and control. At present 200 boys are in training at this school.

Western House of Refuge, Rochester, N.Y. — This institution was opened in 1849, and since that time 3,892 boys have been admitted, up to 1875. A girls' department has been since added.

New-York House of Refuge. — At the opening of this institution in 1825, there were 9 inmates, — 6 girls and 3 boys. There have been received since that time, 15,689 inmates. The ratio of boys to girls is about 5 to 1. The whole number of boys in 1875 was 666; girls, 116, — total, 782.

New-York Catholic Protectory. — This institution receives children of both sexes, from the age of 7 to 16 years; not only juvenile offenders of all grades, but vagrant and homeless children too. There are in charge of the female department, 9 sisters of charity. The number of girls here for some years has averaged 600; of boys, 1400.

New-York Juvenile Asylum, New-York City. — The children here belong mainly to the delinquent class: their average number, girls and boys, is about 600. It maintains a branch at Normal, Ill., from which large numbers are placed in Western homes, and their welfare looked after by a competent agent.

Cincinnati House of Refuge. — This institution has been estab-

lished about twenty-five years. It is a place where overreached and tempted children may find a refuge from temptation. The boys' department contains 112 dormitories, a bath-room 50 by 12 feet, and 26 dressing-rooms. The girls' department contains 22 dormitories, two sewing-rooms, one school-room, one ironing-room, and one drying-room.

The Ohio Reform-School for Boys. — This noble and cherished institution, the just pride of the great commonwealth, began its course of usefulness as a very humble experiment, in January, 1858. At the last Report, 1,822 boys had been received into the school, 1,379 had been discharged, and 443 were enjoying its advantages. It has a farm at Lancaster of 1,170 acres. The buildings, yards, lawns, and play-grounds, occupy 20 acres, with eight family-houses, each accommodating from 50 to 60 boys. There are no girls in this institution.

Pennsylvania House of Refuge, Philadelphia. — On the first of January, 1874, there were 566 inmates in this house; viz., 362 white boys, 77 white girls, 90 colored boys, and 37 colored girls.

Western Pennsylvania Reform-School. — This institution was founded twenty years ago. It has had under its charge the last year 303 boys and 104 girls. The large boys have earned in the workshop \$4,604.87; the small boys knit; and the girls do all the cooking, washing, ironing, tailoring, and sewing for the family.

The Michigan State Public School, Coldwater. — Mr. Randall says in his interesting report, that this institution was opened May 21, 1874. It was established, and is maintained, by the State, for those children who without it would have no home except such as private charity or the county poorhouse might provide. In this home the State becomes the guardian of such children during minority, maintaining and educating them until a family home can be found, when the child is still under the supervision of the State. Since the school was opened, there have been admitted 509 children. At the present time, there are in the school 203 boys and 49 girls. Cost *per capita* for average attendance of 264 children, \$117.18 per annum.

Wisconsin Industrial School for Girls, Milwaukee. — Taking a small number of young boys. This school was organized in 1875, and had, in November, 1878, 160 pupils: 25 have been placed in homes, seven apprenticed, and eighteen adopted. The noble, Christian women who have worked so faithfully to establish this charity feel that the three years of unceasing effort have been

crowned with success. So confident was the State of the efficacy of the school, and the need of such an institution for the elevation of the neglected, wicked, and degraded girls, that they appropriated, for the purpose of erecting a building away from the heart of the city, the sum of \$15,000. The city of Milwaukee gave eight acres of land, valued at \$20,000, thereby showing its appreciation of the service done to the community by the removal of abject poverty and youthful vice from their midst. A blessing, says their Secretary in her report, for which society is so grateful that neither the community nor the State can afford to permit us to lessen our endeavors. The Board, while expressing their gratitude to the State, cannot refrain from reminding the legislature, that, while it has given more than one million and a quarter dollars for the reformation and support of dependent boys, it has appropriated only sixteen thousand dollars for the reclamation and maintenance of the girls of the same class. This institution was begun as a private charity, and at first received public aid by each county committing a child paying a stated sum toward its support. Mrs. W. P. Lynde of Milwaukee, the first woman who ever served on a State Board of Charities, through that experience and observation became convinced of the need of such an institution. She was the originator, and is still the honored head, of the Association.

The Industrial School for Girls at Dorchester, Mass., was the first institution of this class in the United States, devoted entirely to the care of dependent girls; and a most noble work it has accomplished. This institution received its first inmates twenty-three years ago. It is a private charity. It reports great success in training the girls intrusted to its care in all kinds of household industries, also in giving them a certain amount of instruction in the common English branches. Each girl has a special guardian appointed from among the managers, who watches over her till she becomes of age, and thus the work extends far beyond the school, and an opportunity is afforded of estimating the value of this effort.

The Maryland Industrial School (for girls alone) is near Baltimore. The object of this school is not punishment, but prevention. Its aim is not simply to restrain from evil, but to educate the mind and heart, and to train the hands, that the inmates may acquire moral and industrious habits. Homes are procured for all as soon as they become sufficiently trusty. There are thirty-one girls in the school,—all it could accommodate; and they are com-

mitted at any age under eighteen years, and can remain till twenty-one.

Connecticut Industrial School (for girls alone) was incorporated in January, 1870. The report gives as the whole number of girls received since opening, 298. This school is not a State institution, but a private charity, incorporated and employed by the State for the custody, guardianship, discipline, and instruction, of its dependent girls. For each girl committed to its care by legal process, the State pays \$156 a year, being the same amount that it pays for prisoners in the county jails. The system of discipline and education is especially adapted to the condition and wants of girls. The officers report that the experience of this school has fully demonstrated that its discipline has, in most cases, effected a salutary change in the character and conduct of the inmates. It has shown that at least 75 per cent of the girls may be expected to become virtuous and respectable women, remembering the school in after years with grateful affection. Especially they say that the guardianship and control of the school, which has terminated at eighteen, will be extended to twenty-one years; giving the experience of the school as showing that the want of this guardianship and control has proved to be the most frequent cause of failure in the work. It is given as the opinion of those most experienced, that nearly all the girls may be saved now this change is made, but that without it many who have done well at the school, and desired and promised to do well, were insnared and ruined upon leaving it.

Illinois Industrial School (for girls only).—This institution is at South Evanston, twelve miles from this city, temporarily occupying the beautiful building and grounds formerly known as the Soldiers' Home. This institution is a private charity, started by a few earnest women, who had been pained to find there was no home, no school, or place of refuge for the dependent, orphaned and friendless girls of the State, who were constantly surrounded by the worst of temptations,—a large number of whom they were sure would go to ruin if not protected and cared for. In November, 1877, these women were able, through Divine Providence, with no money in their treasury, but great faith, to open the school, and have gone steadily on in their effort until they have demonstrated the feasibility and need of such an institution. The first and leading principle of this school, is the entire separation of the dependent child from evil surroundings, even from

criminal children as well as criminal adults. It is the object of this school to provide a temporary home for the poor girls who are homeless; and their being homeless and friendless is all that is required to secure to them its advantages. It also has the merciful intent to find permanent homes for these destitute children. There have been received into this school since Nov. 1, 1877, fifty girls: ages averaging from four to seventeen years. There have been many applications which we were obliged to refuse for want of capacity to accommodate, or means to support; and it has been with aching hearts that the managers have had to refuse to take many who needed immediate attention. Last winter a bill was introduced in the legislature, asking the State to authorize the establishment of industrial schools for girls: the dependent girls to be committed to the schools by legal process, that each county sending a child to this school should contribute the sum of ten dollars a month toward its support and education. I am happy to be able to announce that the bill was passed, and is now a law. Also, one member of the Board is to be appointed guardian to each child, whose care and watchfulness over her shall continue even after she has gone into a home elsewhere, and until the girl becomes of age, eighteen years. There was also an effort made to continue this guardianship till the girl became twenty-one; as it seemed to the experienced mothers and thoughtful fathers of this association, that the most dangerous age in a young girl's life is, perhaps, between the ages of seventeen and twenty-one years.

Allow me once more to direct your attention particularly to this subject, as it seems to me of great importance. Permit me to ask, is there a father here who would be willing that his daughter should go out into the world at the age of eighteen years, with no home, no natural protector, entirely without care or control, amid the thousand snares and temptations that beset the young and unwary? Why should girls be left uncontrolled and without guardianship three years earlier than boys? Is the girl's judgment more mature? her character more fully formed? Is she less likely to meet temptation, or stronger to resist it? In this school, whose inmates number, at the present time, thirty-five pupils, — all we are able to accommodate, — we have had many interesting experiences. The improvement and advancement of the children have been wonderful, — far exceeding our most sanguine expectations; filling our hearts with thankfulness that we should be the humble means of

reaching so many destitute, homeless wanderers, and bringing them into the atmosphere of a Christian home, and under the purifying, refining influences to which they have so readily yielded. One needs but to see these dear girls in the school-room, the sewing-room,—in their daily rounds of duties, so cheerfully and perfectly rendered,—to satisfy himself that we have laid the foundation for a structure that shall become a monument for good, through time into eternity. It was at first our thought to unite the work, taking both boys and girls into the school; but, after careful investigation, and consultation with many persons having large experience in this class of institutions, it was decided that it would be unwise to connect the two. As the State was appropriating thirty thousand dollars a year for the support of a reform or industrial school for boys at Pontiac, Ill., we decided to take only girls, under eighteen years of age, sound in mind and body.

The foregoing reports show that there has been much more attention given to dependent boys than to the same class of girls; and a summary of the number of both receiving the benefits of these institutions shows 35,765 boys and 4,967 girls.

There had been established, up to 1876, thirty reform and industrial schools, in nineteen of the States of the Union, the remaining States and Territories having no such institutions. The provision made for reformatories is for boys mainly: fifteen of these institutions are for boys alone; and four, including the one in this State, for girls; twelve for boys, with a small department for girls. In most of these, the boys are taught a good, lucrative trade, given a new suit of clothes, and twenty-five dollars, on leaving the institution. The girls are taught to cook the very plainest food, mend the coarsest clothes, and wash and iron; but it is very rarely that they are given a trade, or come out of the institution skilled in any industry; for that reason, when they go into the world they cannot earn a living, and the end is often starvation or prostitution.

In many of these institutions, as in Maryland, Wisconsin, and Illinois, the girls are crowded out, to make room for the boys.

Is this large disproportion due to the fact that there are so many more boys than girls born to the depraved and unfortunate? I think not, as the statistics show, in our Eastern States at least, that female children preponderate. Or is it because a large number of these female children grow up to lives of virtue and rectitude? If you look into the statistics of the depraved,

the vicious, and those who are living lives of immorality, you will find, I think, the number of women equal, or nearly equal, to the number of men.

Is it not because the State and the law-makers have failed to see the self-evident truth, that each unprincipled, impure girl left to grow up, and become a mother, is likely to increase her kind three to five fold?

Galton, in his work on heredity, makes this statement, founded on wide and carefully-made comparisons, that, in production of character, original constitution is a much more important factor than either education or surroundings.

Said a great man of the past, "Show me the mothers of a nation, and I will tell you what its men are like."

If, in a few short years, the descendants of two unfortunate pauper sisters can be counted to the number of one thousand persons, and it is said that only twenty-two of the whole number did not become a tax upon the State as paupers and criminals, the rest costing the State \$1,823,000, without reckoning the pauperism, idiocy, insanity, and money squandered in strong drink, it is time to pause and think.

Not until our law-makers see that it is much cheaper to care for the dependent girls who are soon to become the mothers of a large number of the men of this nation; not till they realize that these girls have an equal right with boys to the care and training given at public expense, will justice be done, and wisdom have her way.

In this lies the difference: those who perpetrate crimes, such as murder, theft, arson, &c., are tried and condemned, and the facts are made public; while immorality and kindred vices, into which the majority of this class of girls drift, escape public notice, until the resources of outraged nature are exhausted, and, diseased, morally and physically, they not unfrequently sink into the unwept grave of the suicide, or the more deplorable living tomb of a lunatic asylum, leaving a progeny inheriting all their vices.

May we, of the present generation, impress deeply upon the minds of the youth of this nation the evident truth, that prevention of crime is better than effort at reform, whether successful or not; and may the sentiment grow until the removable causes of degradation and vice are known only in the written history of the human race.

Louise Rockwood Wardner.

After the reading of these four papers, a short debate followed, in which Mrs. Marian V. Dudley of Wisconsin, Mr. Letchworth, Mr. A. D. Hendrickson, and Mr. A. E. Elmore of Wisconsin took part.

THIRD DAY'S SESSION.

THURSDAY MORNING, June 12.

The Conference re-assembled at ten a.m., Gen. Brinkerhoff in the chair. On motion of Mr. Henry W. Lord, the name of the Conference was changed so as to read "The Conference of Charities and Correction." Gen. Francis A. Walker was then given the floor to make a statement as to statistical information to be obtained in the census of 1880. Rev. Fred. H. Wines, appointed by the Interior Department to control the statistics of crime and misfortune, was unanimously approved and commended.

The papers of Mrs. C. R. Lowell of New York, Mr. Low, Dr. Reynolds, and Mr. Pellew, were then read as follows:—

I.—ONE MEANS OF PREVENTING PAUPERISM.

BY MRS. C. R. LOWELL OF NEW YORK.

THE legislature of New York, by concurrent resolution of May 27-29, 1873, directed the State Board of Charities to examine into the causes of the increase of crime, pauperism, and insanity in that State. In compliance with this resolution, an examination, which occupied the Secretary of the Board, with the assistance of various commissioners, for the greater part of two years, was made into the antecedents of every inmate of the poorhouses of the State, and the result submitted to the legislature in the Tenth Annual Report of the State Board of Charities. Even a casual perusal of that report will convince the reader that one of the most important and most dangerous causes of the increase of crime, pauperism, and insanity, is the unrestrained liberty allowed to vagrant and degraded women. The following are the records of a few only of the women found in the various poorhouses,— women who from early girlhood have been tossed from poorhouse to jail, and from jail to poorhouse, until the last trace of womanhood in them has been destroyed:—

"In the Albany County poorhouse, a single woman, forty years

old, of foreign birth, and nine years in the United States, the mother of seven illegitimate children; the woman degraded and debased, and soon again to become a mother."

"In the Chautauqua County poorhouse, a woman, fifty-five years old, admitted when twenty-two as a vagrant; said to have been married, but the whereabouts of her husband is unknown; has been discharged from the house, and returned repeatedly, for the past thirty-three years, during which time she has had six illegitimate children."

"In the Cortland County poorhouse, an unmarried woman, twenty-seven years old, with her infant child; has been the mother of four illegitimate children, and four of her sisters have also had illegitimate children. The woman fairly intelligent and educated, but thoroughly debased and vagrant."

"In the Essex County poorhouse, a black woman, widowed, aged forty-nine years, and her daughter, single, aged twenty-four years, and her grandson, a mulatto, four years old, illegitimate, and born in the house. The first has been the mother of ten children, seven illegitimate; the second has had three illegitimate children. Both women are intemperate and thoroughly depraved, and quite certain to remain public burdens, each having already been nineteen years in the house. A widowed woman, twenty-four years old, and two children aged respectively four and five years, both illegitimate and feeble-minded and born in the poorhouse, the latter being a mulatto. The woman was sent to the house when six years old, was afterwards placed out but soon returned, and has spent most of her time in this and other poorhouses; has also had three brothers and one sister who were paupers, and is soon again to become a mother; is thoroughly debased, and will probably remain, with her children, a burden through life."

"In the Green County poorhouse, a vagrant unmarried woman, forty years old, and first an inmate when twenty-one years of age; goes out from time to time, but soon returns, and will doubtless continue a public burden through life; has five illegitimate children. An unmarried girl, eighteen years of age, having two illegitimate children, the youngest of whom, an infant, was born in the house; was early orphaned, and entered the poorhouse when only seven years of age; her mother a pauper, and she has had one brother and two sisters also paupers; is thoroughly debased, and offers but little hope of reformation."

"In the Genesee County poorhouse, a single woman, aged twenty-six years, admitted when eighteen years old; has three illegitimate children with her, aged respectively seven years, three years, and eight months, all of whom were born in the house; and also another child, bound out; was orphaned in early life, and, being neglected, soon became vagrant and idle, and will probably continue to be a public burden."

"In the Herkimer County poorhouse, a single woman aged sixty-four years, twenty of which have been spent in the poorhouse; has had six illegitimate children, four of whom have been paupers."

"In the Montgomery County poorhouse, a woman twenty years old, illegitimate, uneducated, and vagrant; has two children in the house, aged respectively three years and six months, both illegitimate, and the latter born in the institution; recently married an intemperate crippled man, formerly a pauper, and the county will doubtless be further burdened with additional progeny."

"In the Oswego County poorhouse, an unmarried woman, twenty-nine years of age, born in the poorhouse of a neighboring county; has had five illegitimate children, one of whom only is living; the father, mother, and five sisters have been paupers; is ignorant, shiftless, and vagrant, and gives no hope of reformation."

"In the Otsego County poorhouse, a widowed woman aged thirty-five years, three times married (first when only thirteen), a vagrant, and has spent twelve years in poorhouses; has seven living children, three of whom have been paupers, and she seems likely to burden the public with additional progeny."

"In the Ontario County poorhouse, a married woman twenty-six years of age, frequently in jail for intoxication, two years an inmate, with a male child three years old and an infant girl aged two months; led a vagrant life in childhood, the father, mother, and four sisters being paupers; is debased and thoroughly degraded by sensual and immoral practices and gives but little hope of reformation; the husband said to be able, but declines to provide for her support. A girl eighteen years of age, unmarried, and only three months in the house; is well connected, prepossessing in appearance, but shameless in conduct; was early orphaned, and has led a roving, vagrant life; is soon to become a mother, and offers no hope of reformation."

"In the Orange County poorhouse, a woman, widowed, eighty

years old, educated and temperate; admitted twenty years ago, with her husband, since deceased, and three female children, two of whom are dead; her daughter forty-four years old, ignorant and depraved, married at nineteen, now widowed; the latter had three children by her husband, one only being living, and subsequently four illegitimate children, all of whom are dead; two of her granddaughters, one twenty-four and the other thirteen years of age, the former single, uneducated, ignorant, and debased, and the latter an idiot; and her great-grand-daughter, three years old, illegitimate, also an idiot, and blind."

"In the Oyster Bay and North Hempstead town poorhouse, a man seventy-two years of age, and his second wife, forty-nine years old, the former an inmate sixteen, and the latter twenty-eight years; the woman has borne four illegitimate children, one of whom, an idiot girl fifteen years old, is now in this house; the man and woman both ignorant, shiftless, and depraved, and classed as permanent burdens."

"In the Rockland County poorhouse, an unmarried woman, aged forty-two years, eleven years an inmate; has had four illegitimate children, two of whom are dead, and two provided for in families; is educated, but intemperate and vagrant and gives no promise of reformation. A single woman, nineteen years of age, first admitted to the poorhouse when twelve years old, and for some time past has led a vagrant, tramping life; is ignorant, shiftless, and degraded, and looked upon as incorrigible."

"In the Rensselaer County poorhouse, a married woman thirty-one years of age, separated from her husband nearly twelve years, since which time she has borne three illegitimate children, one of whom is dead, and two are now with her, the youngest being four months old; is ignorant, vagrant, and depraved, and gives little promise of future self-support."

"In the St. Lawrence County poorhouse, a single woman, twenty-six years old, an inmate only a few months; has two illegitimate children with her, the younger born in the house, and has also another illegitimate child, provided for by friends; is educated and temperate, but confirmed in habits of vagrancy, and likely hereafter to burden the public."

"In the Suffolk County poorhouse, an ignorant, intemperate, unmarried woman aged sixty-one years, eighteen of which have been passed in poorhouses, giving birth during the time to three children,—one being a pauper, and two self-supporting."

"In the Westchester County poorhouse, an ignorant, vagrant, unmarried colored woman, thirty-two years of age, an inmate six years, having two illegitimate children provided for in families, and two (twins) one year old, with her, born in the institution."

These women and their children, and hundreds more like them, costing the hard-working inhabitants of the State annually thousands of dollars for their maintenance, corrupting those who are thrown into companionship with them, and sowing disease and death among the people, are the direct outcome of our system. The community itself is responsible for the existence of such miserable, wrecked specimens of humanity. These mothers are women who began life as their own children have begun it,— inheriting strong passions and weak wills, born and bred in a poorhouse, taught to be wicked before they could speak plain, all the strong evil in their nature strengthened by their surroundings and the weak good crushed and trampled out of life. Hunted and hounded, perhaps committed to jail while their tender youth had yet some germs of virtue remaining, dragged through the mire, exposed to the wickedness of wicked men and women whose pleasure it is to sully and drag down whatever is more innocent than themselves,¹ in the power of brutal officials,²— what hope could there be for them? and how shall we cast a stone at them, whom we ourselves have, by the strong arm of the law, thrust into the direst temptation?

To begin at the beginning, what right had we to permit them to be born of parents who were depraved in body and mind? What right have we to-day to allow men and women who are diseased and vicious to reproduce their kind, and bring into the world beings whose existence must be one long misery to themselves and others? We do not hesitate to cut off, where it is possible, the entail of insanity by incarcerating for life the incurably insane: why should we not also prevent the transmission of moral insanity, as fatal as that of the mind?

¹ As in the case of a young German girl in one of the New York County jails, whose only companion, an old woman, volunteered to teach her English, and made her repeat the vilest of words for the amusement of the male prisoners, who listened at the door which divided their prison from that of the women.

² Extract from a letter from Dr. Elisha Harris, Corresponding Secretary of the New York Prison Association: "In one county I saw three girls, who had been tramping all summer as leaders of a band of tramping boys. . . . When they wept, as though penitent, and asked who cared for them, the sheriff and his assistants seemed to regard them as objects of derision and sport. . . . In another jail, I found that a sheriff . . . had wantonly assaulted and degraded numerous young women prisoners; and, when sheriff in 1871 and 1872, had utterly brutalized three young girls."

Again, what right had we to leave these unhappy children to be reared in poorhouses, shut off from all that was good and pure, surrounded by all that was low and evil? The State of New York has at last awakened to the direful result of that negligence,¹ but none too soon, as the above records show; and even now, incredible as it may appear, there are men in the State (men, too, who have personal knowledge of the very facts which to us appear so appalling) who are ready to condemn helpless children to a life-long pauperism by repealing the law of 1875, and to rear them in poorhouses, simply because it costs "the county" a few cents more a day to give them such a home as will save them from that misery. The calculation that forty or fifty years of dependence, even if the cost each year be reduced to seventy-five or eighty dollars, is more expensive to "the county" than four or five years at one hundred dollars a year, seems never to be made. The question of what duty the community owes to each of its members is certainly never considered.

Leaving, however, all consideration of duty, and looking only at the *right* of society, the community, which has to bear all the burden of the support of these maimed and crippled bodies and souls, has certainly a right to protect itself, so far as may be, against the indefinite increase of the weight of this burden. In self-defence, the working part of mankind may say to those whom they support by their work, "You yourselves we are prepared to save from starvation by the hard toil of our hands and brains, but you shall not add a single person besides yourselves to the weight we have to carry. You shall not entail upon us and our children the further duty of keeping your children alive in idleness and sin."

These men and women are now constantly maintained by the public, sometimes for years at a time in the same institution, sometimes continually changing from one to another, but never failing to demand a support from their fellows. Why, then, should they not be maintained in institutions fitted to save them from their own weaknesses and vices, where in due time they may be formed anew in body and mind, and be ready to enter the ranks of free and

¹ Chapter 173, Laws of 1875, State of New York, provides that "It shall not be lawful for any justice of the peace, police-justice, or other magistrate, to commit any child over three [amended in 1878 to read 'over two'] or under sixteen years of age, as vagrant, truant, or disorderly, to any poorhouse of this State; or for any county superintendent of the poor, or overseer of the poor, or other officer, to send any such child as a pauper to any such poor house." And, further, that "It shall be the duty of the county superintendents of the poor . . . to cause the removal of all children between the ages of three and sixteen years . . . from their respective poorhouses."

intelligent men and women? Why should they not spend years, if necessary, in institutions described by Gov. Haines of New Jersey in the following words: "Preventive and reformatory institutions are not to be regarded as places of punishment, but as schools of correctional education. . . . In them the ignorant are taught, the vicious restrained, the desponding cheered, the hopeful encouraged. In them industry becomes habitual, and good citizens are made of those who would otherwise become pests of society, following their own evil propensities, or becoming the victims of more practised and designing offenders." Surely no argument based on the right of men to liberty can have weight against such a proposal; nor, again, can any argument of "economy" be for a moment listened to. It is not "economy" to allow an evil to grow and grow to terrifying dimensions, whatever may be the cost of crushing it out at the present time.

The words of Dr. Elisha Harris, Corresponding Secretary of the New York Prison Association, speaking of a prison for women (in the Thirty-second Annual Report of the Association), are most applicable: "Until the State shall have provided a prison and a reformatory refuge for criminal females, and until every county and city has more suitable places of detention for women than the present common jail, most of those who suffer arrest and conviction for crimes will become destroyers and injurers for their lifetime. It must be remembered that hope cannot be extinguished in any mind without hazard to society itself, and that, if smothered and blotted out in a female offender, her life thenceforward will cost the people vastly more when she is free from prison than when in, however great the expenses of the prison for women."

In the present paper, I speak chiefly of women, because they form the visible links in the direful chain of hereditary pauperism and disease, but it must not be forgotten that the treatment here prescribed for them should also be applied to the reformation of the men, whose evil propensities are likewise handed down from one generation to another.

During the year 1878, in thirty-four counties of the State of New York (having an aggregate population of 1,752,138), 304 women between the ages of fifteen and thirty years were sentenced to the county-jails, 95 of whom were under twenty-one years of age. Of the 304, 93 were committed as "prostitutes," "vagrants," or "disorderly;" 127 as "intoxicated," or "drunk and disorderly;" and the rest for other minor offences, as assault and

battery, petty larceny, &c. During the same period, 197 women between the ages of fifteen and thirty were sentenced to the Albany and Onondaga County penitentiaries from thirty counties (fourteen of which were included in those from which the jail statistics have been taken, the remaining sixteen having an aggregate population of 1,001,939); of these prisoners 66 were under twenty-one years of age, and 98 were entered as "prostitutes," "vagrants," &c., while 100 were marked "intemperate." The offences of the rest were petty larceny, assault, &c. In twenty-seven poorhouses of counties with an aggregate population of 1,770,663, from Jan. 1, 1878, to Jan. 1, 1879, among the women between the ages of fifteen and thirty who were admitted, there were 161 (of whom 68 were under twenty-one years) who were either prostitutes or intemperate, or *enceinte* with illegitimate children, and several could be counted under all of these classes. Thus we have during only one year, and in only a part of the State, 662 women between the ages of fifteen and thirty, guilty of what are called "minor offences," and dependent for longer or shorter periods on the public for maintenance, 254 of whom are prostitutes, and 276 drunkards. More than a third of these women are under twenty-one years of age, so that probably, for them at least, many years of a shameful life are in store, during which time the public will maintain them.

Among the women who have entered these poorhouses during the year, 73 were *enceinte* with illegitimate children, and many of these women had already one, two, or three illegitimate children, either with them or placed in asylums. The name of each woman of the 662 has been obtained from the official records in the poorhouses, jails and penitentiaries, with the facts about each; but the record in regard to the number of illegitimate children is very imperfect, as is shown by comparing these official statistics with facts collected by private individuals in regard to some of these same women. The counties of New York and Kings have been entirely omitted from the inquiry which has resulted in obtaining the above statistics, and reports have been obtained from only half of the poorhouses of the State, from two penitentiaries, and from only thirty-four of the sixty county-jails; so that the above figures do not give the whole number of young women who have been sentenced and become dependent in the State of New York, through their own sin, during the year 1878.

In his essay on "The Jukes," Mr. Dugdale has computed that

in seventy-five years the descendants of five vicious pauper sisters amounted to twelve hundred persons, and had cost the State of New York more than one million and a quarter dollars. The expense to which the thousand young women who last year entered the poorhouses and jails of the State, many of them already habitual offenders, prostitutes and confirmed drunkards, will subject the State during the next fifty years, becomes a serious question, and one which it is worth while to consider.

The presence of these women in the poorhouses, penitentiaries and jails, under the circumstances, renders it certain that they have less than the average self-control. They have entered on the downward course. In neither jail, poorhouse, nor penitentiary, will they find any thing to help them turn back. On the contrary, all the surroundings will force them lower and lower; and this would be the case, were they much more able to resist than they are. In the jail and penitentiary every door to virtue is closed, and every avenue to vice and crime is open. In the poorhouse they find others like themselves; and although the degrading influences may not be so strong as in jails and penitentiaries, they are there, and strong enough to prevent any chance of rescue. Having an inherited and deep-seated repugnance to labor, these women, both in the poorhouse and jail, are supported in absolute idleness, without even the bodily exercise which is necessary for health. They are shut up in poisonous air, suffering a physical degeneration only to be compared with the ruin wrought at the same time in their minds and souls.

To rescue these unfortunate beings and to save the industrious part of the community from the burden of their support, "Reformatories" should be established, to which all women under thirty, when arrested for misdemeanors, or upon the birth of a second illegitimate child, should be committed for very long periods (not as a punishment, but for the same reason that the insane are sent to an asylum), and where they should be subject to such a physical, moral and intellectual training as would re-create them. Such training would be no child's play, since the very character of the women must be changed, and every good and healthy influence would be rendered useless without the one element of *time*. It is education in every sense which they need, and education is a long process, tedious and wearing, requiring unfaltering hope and unfailing patience on the part of teacher and pupil. Consequently these Reformatories must not be prisons, which would crush out

the life from those unfortunate enough to be cast into them; they must be *homes*, — homes where a tender care shall surround the weak and fallen creatures who are placed under their shelter, where a homelike feeling may be engendered, and where, if necessary, they may spend years. The unhappy beings we are speaking of need, first of all, to be taught to be women; they must be induced to love that which is good and pure, and to wish to resemble it; they must learn all household duties; they must learn to enjoy work; they must have a future to look forward to; and they must be *cured*, both body and soul, before they can be safely trusted to face the world again.

To do all this, their surroundings must be favorable. And what should those surroundings be?

Without pretending that great improvements might not be suggested, the following description will give some idea of an institution where the necessary circumstances might be obtained: —

1st, A comparatively large tract of land (from two hundred and fifty to five hundred acres), to allow of free out-of-door life without any communication with the outer world.

2d, A series of buildings, each to accommodate from fifteen to twenty-five women, and so arranged as to afford ample means of classification.

3d, These buildings to be under the charge of women officers.¹

4th, The inmates to be trained in as many kinds of labor as possible, — all household work, sewing, knitting, cooking, washing and ironing, inside the house; and outside, to work in gardens and greenhouses, to take care of cows, to be dairy-maids, &c. : the object being their improvement in every respect, and also their being finally fitted to support themselves by honest industry.²

5th, Besides this education in labor, their mental and moral faculties should be enlarged by constant teaching, — a school being one of the main features of the Reformatory.

¹ The success of the Indiana Reformatory Prison, and even the short experience of the Massachusetts Prison at Sherborn,— both under the exclusive charge of women, — prove how great an influence for good female officers may exercise in prisons for women. Of the prisoners discharged from the Indiana Prison, eighty per cent are known to be doing well, and there has been but one recommitment in five years.

² Incidentally, the labor of the inmates would partially support them, and thus even the immediate charge on the public for their maintenance would be diminished. At present the expense to each county for the support of the inmates of its jail and poorhouse is a tax on the industrious part of the people. No work is done in the jails of New York (with two exceptions); and in the poorhouses the only work exacted is taking care of the farms in a more or less inefficient way by the men, and a little sewing by the women.

6th, The endeavor should also be made to restore the physical health of the women and they should be kept under the care of a physician of their own sex.

7th, The diversity of buildings would afford means of grading the inmates, and a transfer from one to another would mark a step in advance, or a temporary fall to a lower grade. By this means, the constant "looking forward" necessary to a hopeful life would be obtained.

8th, The board of managers (which should be composed of both men and women) should have power to place out the women committed to their charge, in situations where their wages should belong to themselves, but where they would still be under guardianship and liable to recommitment to the Reformatory in case of ill conduct.

Under such a system, many of the women, who with our present jail and poorhouse education are doomed, might without doubt be rescued. They need to be saved from temptation (which assails them from within and without), and to be guided aright, and many of them will respond joyfully to the efforts for their improvement.

If, however, there were no hope of reforming even one of the thousand young women now beginning what may be a long life of degradation and woe, if the State owed no debt to those whom it has systematically crushed and imbruted from their earliest years, even then it would be the *wisest economy* to build houses for them, where they might be shut up from the present day till the day of their death. They will all live on the public in one way or another for the rest of their lives, many of them will continue to have children, and to cut off this baneful entail of degenerate propensities would be an economy, even though the term of guardianship ended only with the unhappy life itself. For *self-protection*, the State should care for these human beings who, having been born, must be supported to the end; but every motive of humanity, justice, and self-interest should lead to the extinction of the line so soon as possible.

Even the weak State of Hawaii, in order to save its people from the contagion of a physical leprosy, has established an asylum for all who are tainted, on a separate island, to which all lepers of whatever rank are banished for life. Shall the State of New York suffer a moral leprosy to spread and taint her future generations, because she lacks the courage to set apart those who have inherited

the deadly poison and who will hand it down to their children, even to the third and fourth generations?

Dr. Elisha Harris, in his introduction to the fearful history of "The Jukes," makes the following striking assertions:—

"A departure downward from virtue to vice and crime is possible in the career of any youth, but the number of well-born and well-trained children who thus fall is exceedingly small. Habitual criminals spring almost exclusively from degenerating stocks; their youth is spent amid the degrading surroundings of physical and social defilement, with only a flickering of the redeeming influence of virtuous aspiration. The career of offenders so trained at last becomes a reckless warfare against society, and when the officers of justice overtake them and consign them to prisons, the habits of vicious thought and criminal action have acquired the strength and quality of instincts."

Knowing this, shall we stand by, and let this outrage against humanity go on? Shall we make our jails and poorhouses the breeding-places of paupers and criminals? Shall we permit the young to be driven into vice? Shall we expose them to the sight and temptation of vices, of which we cannot even listen to the description? Or shall we, so far as we can, assure to each child born in the State of New York a *chance* at least to be virtuous and happy? Shall we continue the wise policy already entered on, and remove all children born in our public institutions from low influences during childhood, and try to root up the evil propensities which they have received from their parents?

Shall we finally, when, overcome by temptation, they have taken one false step,—shall we tenderly turn them aside, and guide them with strong, kind hands, back to the path of virtue and to the knowledge and love of God?

These questions must be answered by the people of the State of New York, and by their representatives and law-makers.

JOSEPHINE SHAW LOWELL.

NEW YORK, May 28, 1879.

II. THE PROBLEM OF PAUPERISM IN THE CITIES OF BROOKLYN AND NEW YORK.

READ BY MR. SETH LOWE OF BROOKLYN, N.Y.

Every large city contains a class of people who have to be supported, at least in part, by the public. A very few are cared for in

the county buildings. Outside of these few are a great mass of men and women who have either lost the capacity for self-support, or who have parted with the very idea of depending wholly upon themselves. In this class are many who ask for temporary help only,—those whom resistless circumstances have reduced in spite of themselves to the need for help. Others again—the shiftless, the drunken, the lazy—practically demand from society as a right the support which, through their own fault, they fail to obtain in obedience to the divine law: “In the sweat of thy face shalt thou eat bread.”

This makes the problem of pauperism. Some are worthy; some are unworthy. How can the worthy poor, who need perhaps but a little help to tide them over the evil day,—how can the worthy poor in our large cities be helped without being permanently harmed? And what is to be done for the unworthy, and how is it to be done, without encouraging others who are still independent to seek, in preference to the hard-won and meagre support which honest independence gives, the aid which seems so easy to obtain, but which often is so demoralizing?

There is little peculiar to the locality presented by this problem of pauperism in Brooklyn and New York. Not seriously realized, until within a comparatively recent time, to be a grave problem of social life in these cities, it has been grappled with hitherto in the main as a physician copes with some strange disease. The remedy has been adapted to the symptom of the moment; but the treatment has not been successful. It is something to know that the very magnitude of the problem has of late years attracted to its consideration more of the attention and study it deserves. This problem of pauperism touches society in all its forms. It touches the State; it touches the family; it touches the individual. The State, therefore, has endeavored to cope with it, and also private benevolence. It will be instructive to study what has been done in this twofold way in Brooklyn and New York.

I. The attitude of the State of New York in theory towards the problem of pauperism is shown in the poor-laws of the State. These provide, in effect, that every “poor person who is blind, lame, old, sick, or decrepit, or in any other way disabled or enfeebled, so as to be unable by his work to maintain himself, shall be maintained in the county or town in which he may be.” The law further provides that poorhouses shall be established, and that all paupers who can do work without detriment to themselves shall be called upon to work. In the special case of a pauper being too

ill to be removed to the county buildings, relief may be given to him under certain restrictions pending his removal to the poor-house or hospital. In no other case does the law contemplate a care for the poor by the State outside of buildings provided by the county. The theory, therefore, is very clear.

Now, as to the practice in Brooklyn and New York: A system grew up in time with the growth of the cities, as it has grown up elsewhere, of giving what was known as "out-door relief." It became the custom in both places for the county to make an appropriation annually for the distribution of food or fuel, or both, among the needy poor, in their own homes. This help was not confined to the classes specified in the statute as those who might be so helped temporarily and pending their removal to the county buildings. Presumably it was given in most cases to those able ordinarily to support themselves, but, for some reason, at the time unable to do so. As long as the relief so given was limited in amount, little notice was taken of what has since proved to be, in Brooklyn at all events, an infraction of the law. No doubt it seemed to many good people at the outset a judicious practice on the part of the authorities. There are always some standing in need of help, whom no one wishes to send to the poorhouse. Why should not the State, many might say, administer to the necessities of such in their own homes? Let the experience of Brooklyn furnish the answer.

In the subjoined figures the country towns of Kings County are included as well as the city of Brooklyn; but these towns are insignificant in comparison with the city, and for the purposes of this paper the figures may be said to give the experience of Brooklyn. "Out-door relief," so called, began in Brooklyn in 1851-52. For the year ending July 31, 1852, the number of people helped was 6,754, at a cost of \$7,139 $\frac{99}{100}$. With some variations, this had grown, in 1864, to 20,743 persons helped, at a cost of \$25,921 $\frac{47}{100}$. In 1865 the general demoralization which set in after the war placed a corrupt man in charge of the poor-funds, and the figures bear witness to the result. From that moment bad became worse uninterruptedly. In 1865, while only 1,500 more people were helped than in 1864, it cost the county \$72,708 $\frac{37}{100}$, against \$25,921 $\frac{47}{100}$ in 1864,—an increase of \$46,000 in a single year. In 1877 help was given to 46,350 persons, or nearly one-tenth of the population, at a cost of \$141,207 $\frac{35}{100}$. For the six years from 1872-77, an average of 35,109 were helped, at an aver-

age cost of \$114,943⁷²⁵. The total outlay for this period of six years by Kings County for out-door relief alone was \$689,662³⁵⁵. To such an item at last had grown the kindly and apparently harmless thing. The population of Kings County is estimated in round numbers to have been, in 1852, 150,000; in 1864, 320,000; in 1877, 550,000.

The system had become furthermore a sore on the body politic. The friends of politicians received help whether needy or not, and so the system was perpetuated. Families with voters were the first served. The "out-door relief" appropriations became a vast political corruption fund. Large numbers of the population were taught to rely on the county help, and sought it for no other reason than that the county gave it. One woman received help under nine different names. Many sold what they received. Men came from the country every autumn to live at the expense of the city during the winter, because the city was offering a premium to the idle to come there and live in idleness. The poor did not get the chief benefit of increased appropriations. Most of it went to underlings connected with the work of distribution. In every way, and in every direction, the effect was hopelessly bad.

In 1875 the Commissioners of Charities employed paid visitors to investigate the cases of applicants for relief; and it cost sixty cents to distribute every dollar's worth of food or fuel. This was so monstrous that public clamor compelled a change. In 1876 the visiting system was abandoned, and all applicants were compelled to take oath that they were paupers. As may be imagined, the result was horrible. Moreover, many who lived in New York availed themselves of such easy opportunity to be fed by Brooklyn.

Meanwhile public sentiment became more and more aroused, but found itself utterly unable to work any change, even through the polls, in the management of the Commission of Charities. Year after year the same class of men were elected Commissioners of Charities, despite the efforts of many citizens and of all the local papers. Reform seemed impossible. In 1877 a committee of volunteer visitors was organized, who agreed to investigate the cases of all applicants for relief. Their services, fortunately, were accepted by the Charity Commissioners. These visitors were not given power to control the distribution of relief, but could only report. They did not directly accomplish much. But they saw thoroughly the working of the system, and came to the conclusion that "out-door relief" could not be administered by the county so

as to be worth giving. The following year, 1878, the volunteer visitors so reported to the Charity Commissioners and to the Board of Supervisors. The visitors said, however, that as out-door relief had been given for so long, and many of the poor had been educated, in a sense, to depend upon such help, they would continue to visit for that year also, provided nothing should be distributed excepting coal. The visitors suggested that the year following even coal might properly be withheld. The Board of Supervisors, to whom they reported, agreed to this, and appropriated a certain sum for coal only. Subsequently, after the 1st of January, 1878, a new Board of Supervisors reconsidered this action of their predecessors, and decided that certain articles of food should be distributed in addition to coal. It may be mentioned, that in Kings County the supervisors make the appropriations, and define the specific objects for which they are to be used. The actual distribution of the relief funds is then made, in accordance with such appropriations, under the direction of the Commissioners of Charities. The action of the Board of Supervisors for 1878 proved to be the beginning of the end of the whole system of public out-door relief. Long attention to the subject had convinced some that "out-door relief," on the part of the county, was not legal under the laws of the State. At this crisis, through friends in the Board of Supervisors, the question of legality was referred to the counsel of the Board.

The opinion of counsel was delivered at a meeting of the Board of Supervisors, held Jan. 31, 1878. It was to the effect that, in the absence of special laws authorizing it, the system of out-door relief was contrary to the general poor-law of the State of New York. This opinion prevented an appropriation for out-door relief in Kings County during the last winter, 1878-79. Many anticipated great and unusual suffering among the poor by consequence. It seems almost a marvel that nothing of the sort occurred. The testimony of the private relief associations, and of many who give much time personally to visiting among the poor, is all to the same effect. The poor have suffered less this winter in Brooklyn than either last year or the winter before. Think of it,—one hundred thousand dollars saved in a single twelve months to the county in the item of "out-door relief," and no one the sufferer for its being withheld! The saving in the interests of morality cannot be expressed in money.

From six thousand to eight thousand families have been in the

habit, for many years, of drawing weekly rations from the county during the winter season. This last year nothing was given; and, out of so many families presumably needy, not one case of unusual suffering, during the whole winter, was brought to the notice of the public. The fact is so suggestive as to be almost startling. No language could depict half so vividly the worthlessness of public "out-door relief" as administered in a large city.

The experience of Brooklyn seems to prove, therefore, beyond cavil,—

1. That out-door relief, by the authorities in a large city, is certain to become, in time, a political thing.
2. That the aid so given goes almost entirely to those who can get along without it.
3. That private benevolence is equal to the demands of the really needy.
4. And, above all, that in New-York State, in the absence of laws specifically authorizing it in a given locality, the system is illegal.

II. In point of economical work, private societies in Brooklyn and New York have easily surpassed the public efforts at relief. But pauperism has grown, despite all the efforts to relieve the poor. Distress has been relieved in many cases; but the number of those who seek help to avert distress has been increased. Statistics are not at hand to support this opinion; but its truthfulness, as a general statement, will scarcely be questioned by those familiar with the two cities. It is easy to say, that indiscriminate giving and ill-considered methods of relief, whether public or private, are largely responsible for this result.

Among those who have made a specialty of working among the poor, three principles seem to have been reached with so much unanimity as almost to be axioms in the science of useful relief work,—

1. That help should be given with an intelligent understanding of the circumstances of the person or family to be relieved.
2. That value should never be given, except in great emergencies, and then only while the emergency lasts, without securing from the recipient some labor or service in return.
3. That while distress may be temporarily relieved by alms-giving, the condition of the poor can be improved only by helping them to help themselves.

It cannot be too distinctly remembered, that the relief of dis-

tress is one thing, and the improvement of the condition of the poor another, and a far nobler. Only by improving the condition of the poor can pauperism be checked and restricted.

Experience seems to show, beyond the need of argument, that no departure can be made from these principles, either by societies, by churches, or by individuals, without producing indirectly more harm than is compensated for by the good directly done. The real question, therefore, presented by the problem of pauperism in Brooklyn and New York, is how to bring the work done for the relief of the poor into subjection to these governing principles.

The first point suggested is the need for investigation into every case before aid is given. How can help be wisely given without it? All cities swarm with a class of beggars whose profession is to deceive. Whoever gives ignorantly, no matter from how kind a motive, aids and abets precisely this class. He does the greatest injustice to the worthy poor, who struggle to support themselves in the face of the discouraging evidence, so often before them, that begging gives better returns than honest work. The effect of such giving is almost surely to increase the number of those who live by deception. Investigation is not a matter of choice. It is a duty which no one can evade without responsibility, for it is this habit of giving without investigation which primarily places a premium upon imposture and mendicancy.

But individuals cannot investigate the cases of all who seek their aid; neither can they, as a rule, investigate thoroughly. What, then, is to be done? There can be little doubt, it would seem, that, when individuals cannot themselves investigate, they should withhold the help until they can secure investigation in some way. There are societies in Brooklyn and New York worthy of confidence, who will investigate for their subscribers all cases referred to them. These or other agencies might be availed of, the services of friends may be sought, but in no case should help be given without investigation. The testimony of experience on this point is unequivocal. The balance of harm so done is almost certain to outweigh the good.

But for the other and no less important point of thorough investigation. What shall be done about that? Even the most experienced visitors, and the oldest and best conducted societies, are often deceived. What is the remedy for this? There is but one effective and practical remedy that ever has been suggested, — co-operation among the aid-giving agencies by the mutual interchange

of information. No little part of the difficulty to be overcome in the wise treatment and restriction of pauperism in our cities springs from the great number of the channels through which the streams of relief are always flowing to those who need or seek help. The dishonest poor thrive by deceiving as many as possible of the individuals and churches and societies who are engaged in the work of relief. But, if those who give relief will work together, there is this one advantage in the same state of facts. Light from a single point leaves one-half of an object in shadow; but lights shining from different and opposite points expose all sides of an object to the view. So it is with investigation. A single visitor, however experienced, will often be deceived: he may not strike on the right clew. But, if the information gathered by all the agencies that investigate were to be interchanged among one and another, few cases of imposture could long escape detection.

A multiplication of aid-giving societies, however, working over the same field, is very much to be deplored. The disadvantages far exceed this possible advantage. Some years ago a Bureau of United Charities was established in New York, having in view, among other things, the effecting of an interchange of information between the various charitable societies. While it has not received universal support, it has worked well enough to prove how valuable an aid it might easily be to those in co-operation with it, if generally and vigorously sustained.

This last winter, in Brooklyn, a similar Bureau of Charities, as it is there called, has been started for the purpose of effecting a similar interchange of information. The time was propitious, because the county had ceased to furnish "out-door relief;" and all private societies were alive to the necessity of proving themselves equal to any emergency. The Bureau has received the hearty co-operation of most of the large Protestant relief societies of the city, of six of the conferences of the Roman-Catholic St. Vincent de Paul Society, of several of the Protestant churches and missions, and of many individuals. It has proved that Roman Catholics and Protestants, and men of all creeds, can and will work together in good faith in the endeavor to restrict pauperism. It is believed that, in Brooklyn, the Bureau of Charities will grow in efficiency as it grows in age. It gives no relief in any form. It simply effects an interchange among those who give relief of information in regard to the class who are seeking aid. The information received

from every source is kept in the most confidential way, and is given only to those having a right to inquire. The machinery is simple; and the expenses are not heavy, not more than \$1,000 to \$1,500 per annum. The Bureau has saved to those who have used it far more than it has cost. It is to be borne in mind that the cost of such a system is only an apparent expense. More than the equivalent of the cost is saved in money to the charitable institutions of the city. But of far greater consequence is the harm that is prevented by withholding from the unworthy much of the premium that ignorant giving places upon imposture. The Bureau has developed also a pleasanter side: it has directed aid to some worthy people, who, perhaps, except for it, would have suffered without relief.

Now, when all has been learned in regard to a case that can be learned, what is to be done? No general canon can be stated by which to decide when help should be given or withheld. It is competent, however, to suggest, that, in deciding whether or not to extend help in a given case, the effect of the aid to be given in that case on the character as well as on the physical need of the person should be considered. And one should also consider that which is often forgotten,—the bearing of each particular case on the problem of pauperism at large. While the idle, for example, are to be supported by others, simply because they are needy, when can the number of the lazy be expected to diminish?

But, when help is to be given, what is to be done? There are practically two modes of action. The general habit—certainly of individuals, perhaps, also, of societies—is to give but a little help, which is soon gone, and which leaves the old need as pressing as before. And so, if help be needed at all, this insufficient help makes continued begging necessary for actual subsistence. It is not possible to elevate a family while begging wins for it the bread of life. Is it not wiser, therefore, to help fewer people, and to help them sufficiently while the need lasts? A weekly allowance proportioned to the need throws the interest of the person helped on the side of the helper, and the helper may then exercise an influence for good in many ways. The possible objection that help will be sought and received from many sources can be overcome to a great extent through the operation of an efficient Bureau of Charities. Interchange of information necessarily means, in many of its effects, co-operation in action.

The idea of a work-test, before help is given to able-bodied men

or women, seems worth engrafting, so far as possible, upon the operations of all relief societies. In Providence, R.I., and elsewhere, the authorities have made tramps and vagrants do a certain amount of work in return for food and shelter. Under this regimen the number of tramps and vagrants diminished almost as rapidly as the snow-banks of winter before the suns of spring. In a small way the same thing has been done by many private societies. Without doubt it would go far towards sifting out a class of people from the relief rolls, to whom, in a spirit of enlightened wisdom, nothing can be said so truly kind as the words of St. Paul: "If any will not work, neither let him eat."

It has been the aim of this paper to make the inquiry into the problem of pauperism in Brooklyn and New York from the practical side rather than the philosophical. The two points it is desired to emphasize especially are these:—

1. The experience of Brooklyn and New York seems to prove, that, after cities in this country have become large, "out-door relief" cannot be given by the county, so as to be worth the giving, even for the sake of the receivers. The general poor-law of the State of New York forbids "out-door relief" on the part of the county. The system, consequently, is legal in that State only when authorized in a locality by special laws. As the general poor-law of the State of New York is derived from the Elizabethan laws of England, it is probably substantially the same case in many other States of the Union. Those elsewhere who have found "out-door relief" by the authorities to be a burdensome expense, and morally a curse, will do well, therefore, to look into the law.

2. The problem of pauperism in a large city must be considered as a whole. Each case helped is a part of the whole; and the effect of the help given, in any case, acts and reacts in many directions. All who help, therefore,—individuals and churches and societies,—must bear in mind that others are engaged in the same work, and all should work together so far as it is possible. Whatever the impelling motive, whether religious or philanthropic, the obligation to co-operative action remains the same. Practical co-operation may be reached through a central society or bureau, which itself gives no relief, but which serves to interchange information among those in co-operation with it. If co-operation is to be had at all, under the conditions which exist in Brooklyn and New York, it seems probable that it must be wrought out along

that line. The obstacles existing there, to a more radical effort at co-operative work, such as has been made in Buffalo and Philadelphia, would appear to be insurmountable. It is believed, however, that, from the point of co-operation in information, co-operation in action in many useful forms will certainly be developed. It cannot be doubted, that in co-operation among those who give relief is to be found the answer to a wiser and more successful treatment of the problem of pauperism as it presents itself in the great cities of the Union.

Dr. A. Reynolds, of the Insane Hospital, at Independence, Iowa, read the third paper as follows:—

III. THE PREVENTION OF PAUPERISM.

BY DR. A. REYNOLDS OF IOWA.

Let A and B emigrate to a new country with their families, goods, and chattels, all in good health, and self-supporting; no one in the colony disposed to defraud his neighbor of his goods, no one sick, no one insane,—in short, no one a pauper, or in any way a pecuniary dependent. They have need of only simple laws tending to the regulation of their social and financial matters. By and by C comes along. He is of a different stock, lazy may be, poor perhaps, vicious, and driven from his former home more likely; or perchance that worst of all evils has come upon him,—he is insane. Or it may be in a little time some of the old stock get off their original bearings, and they become dependents, paupers. What shall we do with them? is the first question. How shall we stop their increase? is one not less important. The colony has now to enact a new code of laws, to provide for this foreign element in the body politic,—this drain upon the sympathy and treasury of the community. What shall we do with the pauper, be he good or bad, sane or insane? is the question that has come to every community in the land, with such force that men have had little thought till lately how to strike at the root of the matter,—the prevention of pauperism. A pauper is one who is supported wholly or in part, at the public expense. By his position he acknowledges himself beaten in the game of life, willing to accept the crumbs that fall from the rich man's table. How did he become so? To know the cause of a disease in a particular individual, may not help us to cure him; but it may help us to ward off the disease from his neighbor, or to

stamp it out. To know the cause of pauperism should enable the State to check or to some extent control it. Of the long list of causes, intemperance and hereditary influence are the most potent, and to these I shall confine this paper. The two are so inextricably mixed, so interdependent, I might confine myself to the former altogether; for following intemperance we have vice, crime, insanity, idiocy, pauperism, not confined to the one intemperate generation, but handed down to children and children's children, perhaps in an inverse order,—pauperism, idiocy, insanity, crime, intemperance. Certainly one departure, either departure from the normal, may beget the other.

I am not able to give any statistical data as to the proportion of pauperism induced by intemperance; but in the "Report of the Board of Charities" of New York, for 1877, I find some statements like these, which need no explanation. I quote the words of the narrator as he describes certain inmates of the almshouse, in different counties. A man seventy-four years of age, a widower, is intemperate. A widowed woman thirty-five years old, with three children, aged respectively six and four and two years, the latter illegitimate, is ignorant, depraved, and intemperate. A married woman abandoned by her husband, and recently admitted, is intemperate and uneducated. A woman, thirty-five, divorced and two years an inmate, has two children in the house, one illegitimate, is intemperate, uneducated and a vagrant. Two sisters aged respectively fifty-two and fifty-six, both uneducated and given to ineptitude. An unmarried man, sixty-five years old, uneducated and inebriate. A man aged seventy-three, a widower, nine years in the house, is ignorant, intemperate, and childish. A single man forty-seven years of age, uneducated, intemperate, and nearly blind. An unmarried woman forty-nine years of age, educated, but intemperate. A man sixty-five years old, educated and industrious, but intemperate, five years an inmate. A man sixty-nine years of age, six years an inmate, well educated but intemperate and debased. An unmarried man eighty years of age, thirteen years an inmate, is educated but debased by intemperate habits, and wholly dependent. In one almshouse *all* the men, and three of the women, were known to have been intemperate; and six of the former and two of the latter were classed as confirmed drunkards. Here is a characteristic group in the same poorhouse; a man seventy-six years old, and his daughter fifteen years of age, inmates one year, the man well educated but very intemperate,

degraded, and debased; the child entirely helpless. A widow woman thirty-six years of age, and a female child of twelve, idiotic, crippled and helpless; the woman fairly educated, but has formed habits of drink. A man of thirty-nine, with his wife, thirty-three, and a female child two years old; the man ignorant and intemperate. An unmarried man thirty-seven years old, ignorant and intemperate; the mistress of this man, also an inmate, degraded and intemperate. In this latter poorhouse, with thirty-two inmates, thirteen of the men (eighty-seven per cent) and three of the women, were intemperate. In Rensselaer County poorhouse, with 156 inmates, fifty of the men, or ninety-one per cent and twenty-two women, or sixty-six per cent, of those whose habits could be ascertained, were intemperate. The families represented by the inmates in this poorhouse numbered 136. The burdensome, unfortunate, and vicious classes, which had sprung from these families in three generations, as far as known, had been as follows: Paupers, 197; insane, 24; idiotic, 10; inebrate, 103; criminal, 15. Thirty-six of those under care were said to be heads of families, in which were numbered eighty-nine living children. The condition of fifteen of these was unknown, forty-five were providing for themselves, and thirty were dependent. Of the latter, twenty-four were in poorhouses, and six were in asylums.

In Richmond County poorhouse, all the men except three, whose habits could not be ascertained, admitted practices of inebrity, and twenty-seven of them, or over seventy-seven per cent, were known to be habitual drunkards. The habits of the women were classified as follows: abstinent, 16; moderate drinkers, 8; periodical drinkers, 4; confirmed inebrates, 2. In addition, the fathers of fifty-one, and the mothers of twenty-three, were intemperate. But the story grows monotonous. A visit to any poorhouse in the land will furnish collateral evidence, were it needed.

In view of such facts, I ask you, has the State any rights which these people are bound to respect? Has she any right to say what a man or woman shall eat or drink? Let us take another page of the evils of intemperance, and see how much insanity, that greatest poverty of all, is affected by it. To satisfy ourselves that intemperance is one of the main causes of insanity, we have only to examine the reports of hospitals in this country and others. A few examples from the reports of 1877 show that, of those admitted for the year, the number caused by intemperance was as follows:

that of Utica, N.Y., 35; Blackwell's Island, 80; Northampton, Mass., 20; Longview, O., 18; Ward's Island, N.Y., where nearly all are men, the intemperate admitted for the year were 225; moderate drinkers, 210; abstinent, 51; unknown, 2.

In the statistical tables published by the metropolitan commissioners of lunacy (England) in 1874, we find that out of 12,007 cases whose supposed causes were returned, 1,499, or nearly 15 per cent, are set down to the account of intemperance; but besides these, 551, or nearly 5 per cent, are attributed to vice and sensuality, in which excessive use of alcoholic liquors shared.

In the Glasgow Lunatic Asylum, for seven years, the proportion which this vice bore to other causes was 19 per cent.

Says Dr. Tuke, an eminent English author: "The teaching of lunacy statistics points to two facts: that wherever there is the most pauperism, there, as a general rule, will be the largest amount of insanity; not merely because insanity pauperises, but because mal-nutrition and the manifold miseries attendant upon want, favor the development of mental disease, and that here intemperance stands out in lurid relief as the foremost cause of the disease."

Examples may be multiplied indefinitely; but, to make some practical application: if pauperism, individual pauperism, is so largely caused by this one element, it is clearly the duty of the state to confine that element; and, if it cannot go further, it can certainly prevent its reproduction. A person who indulges in strong drink to the extent of unaccountability, who makes himself a nuisance, is put in durance vile; and, when sobered, discharged, to again commit the same offence when his means will admit, or his appetite dictate. Would it not be wise to place that man for one year in an asylum for drunkards,—a new institution we are to have in the land? While in confinement let him be compelled to work at some useful trade. If he does not know one, let him be compelled to learn one, or do the menial work. He should thus be made self-supporting. The community has for the time disposed of one case of pauperism; for I am considering every man a prospective pauper who becomes drunk. When the man is discharged, he will very likely be sober and industrious for a while; but let him know that so surely as he gets drunk again, he will again become a ward of the state, bound to earn his bread by the sweat of his brow, and he is going to be careful about taking a first glass. Besides, nothing so much tends to the eradication

of a habit as a long abstinence from its indulgence. Well, what have we done toward the prevention of pauperism? We have made a sober man out of a drunken one. We have taught a man a trade, perhaps, who never knew one before. He is again able to do his share of the world's work. But we have done more: we have taught him, his neighbors, his family, and all who have been associated with him, the majesty of the law, and the heinousness of the offence a man commits every time he attempts to perpetrate actual or moral suicide, or takes bread from his children's mouths, not only impoverishing them, but making a brute of himself. It will sound very differently to his ears, — "drunk, and charged five dollars," or "drunk, and committed for a term of years to the asylum for inebriates."

I hear some one say, You have disposed of the drunkard, — what will you do with those who have been dependent on him for a partial or full support? I would make the dealer in rum pay such a tax to the community as would support the temporary widows and orphans of the men whose money had made him rich. Do not imagine all drunkards' families would be left destitute. Many of the rich or well-to-do become intoxicated; and I am disposed to believe that as much misery and suffering of a peculiar kind follows the intoxication of that class, as of those who spend their last hard-earned penny at the doggery. But you ask, Why do you not propose a law to prevent the sale of all that intoxicates? I would be glad to see it done; but it has been tried in half the States from Maine to Colorado, and only God knows with what results.

Let us turn to the other subject, — hereditary paupers, or paupers whose dependence is the result of a bad inheritance. I suggested, in my last biennial report, that the marriage of all who had been, at any time, insane, epileptic, or inebriate, should be made a penal offence; and that all persons acquitted of crime on the ground of insanity should be kept in custody the remainder of their lives. I would go further: the state should prohibit the marriage of all persons who had, at any time after arriving at the age of eighteen years, been supported in any penal or charitable institution, or who are suffering from any incurable bodily infirmity or deformity. At the first view, this may seem unjust. An inmate of a deaf-and-dumb asylum, or blind asylum, may become capable of supporting a family if he or she should marry. Why deprive them of the comforts of a home? These persons, as a rule, are defective in

their organization, and their offspring generally inherit the same, or a similar infirmity. Why, then, should they be allowed to propagate an inferior class, who will, undoubtedly, some time, have to be supported by the State.¹ It is not generally known to how great an extent disease, licentiousness, deformity, and criminality, and resultant poverty, are dependent upon hereditary transmission; nor how the degeneracy is intensified as it goes on from one generation to another, till abhorring nature refuses to transmit the evil longer, and sterility is the result. The historical “Margaret, mother of criminals” is only one of the thousand instances which the history of almshouses, jails, and hospitals could show.

The stream can never rise higher than the fountain. You can not gather grapes of thorns or figs of thistles; then why expect a life worth preserving when either parent is deformed in mind or body?

Says Burton, in that dull, clever book, “The Anatomy of Melancholy,” — “It is the greatest part of our felicity to be well born; and it were happy for human kind if only such parents as are sound in body and mind should be allowed to marry. A husbandman will sow none but the best and choicest seed upon the land. He will not rear a bull or a horse, except he be right shapen in all parts; and how careful, then, should we be in begetting of our children. In former times, some countries have been so chary in this behalf, that, if a child were crooked or deformed in body or mind, they made way with him. At one time, in Scotland, saith Boethius, if any were visited with the falling-sickness, madness, gout, leprosy, or any such dangerous disease, which was likely to be propagated from the father to the son, he was instantly gelded, and a woman kept from all company of men. And this was done for the common good, lest the whole nation should be injured or corrupted. A severe doom, you will say, and not to be used among Christians, yet more to be looked to than it is. For now, by our too much facility in this kind, in giving way for all to marry that will, too much liberty and indulgence in tolerating all sorts, there is a vast confusion of hereditary diseases, — no family secure, no man free from some grievous infirmity or other. It comes to pass, our generation is corrupt; we have many weak persons, both in body and mind; many feral

¹ It was a shrewd question, that of the man who spurned Christ, Was it this man or his parents sinned, Lord, that he was born blind?

diseases raging among us, crazed families, our fathers bad, and we likely to be worse.'

We cannot, in this Christian land, go to the extent recommended and actually practised in less enlightened countries and ages; but we can, in preserving the living unfortunate, save him from being a curse to generations yet unborn. If it is the prerogative of the law to decide within what limits of consanguinity marriage may take place, it may justly be extended to the prohibition of marriage where the offspring is certain to be, in some manner, maintained by the state. Carlyle says, more marriages would be happy if the selections were made by Register-General. I believe the sum total of a nation's happiness and prosperity would be greater, if no man or woman was allowed to marry, who could not show a clear record of health, honesty, and industry.

We sometimes hear the remark, we are too much governed; we have too many laws already; that from their very number and ambiguity they are so frequently disobeyed. So much the worse for the statute-books. Let us have a new code. Let us start again, as our original colony did. Let us treat drunkards as criminals, whose presence in a community is a blight and a curse. Let us stop the propagation of the imbecile, the weak and depraved. Let us stop giving bread to the man who refuses to earn it; make our almshouses workhouses for the adult, and schools for the children. It is no time to talk of being too much governed, when lawless mobs may any day barricade our streets, put out the red flag of communism, board our railroad trains, enter our houses, and demand the bread they have never earned, and go unpunished because they are many. I believe the world is growing better, but so slowly, you and I may never recognize the change. We have got into ruts, and only a short turn will get us out. We need a new departure. For the blessings of the past, let us be truly thankful; but let us not hand down to the next generation the important work which should be done in this.

IV. PAUPERISM IN THE STATE OF NEW YORK.—THE VALUE OF INDUSTRIAL TRAINING AND ENFORCED LABOR.

BY HENRY E. PELLEW OF NEW YORK.

In dealing with an acknowledged evil, it is beyond our present object to go into the causes which have led to such simultaneous alarm about the results and the development of an unwelcome

fact; for a fact it is,—pauperism has become incorporated into the social life of this country! Can it be extirpated? Can it be treated remedially, with a view to its gradual disappearance? Can it be confined within certain limits, beyond which, on no account whatever, it shall be permitted to extend?

The reality of the existence of pauperism in such formidable dimensions, will, perhaps, seem strange to some members of this Conference. Those States are indeed happy in which this cancer has not yet appeared. Appear it will, unless steps are taken betimes to systematize a mode of dealing with the very first germs of the disease. In my State, where there are so many large cities, and such wide-spreading ramifications of commerce,—where the winters are severe, and wealth is most unevenly distributed,—experience shows that we have allowed this evil to creep in upon us unawares, until it has assumed alarming proportions. It is not easy to see where any complete remedy is to be found. Pauperism exists under many forms; but they are all features or symptoms of the same disease. At one moment we may try to stamp out that form which is so familiar to us now under the name of Tramps or Vagabondage. The poorhouses and State institutions may be overhauled, and put into more fitting condition. But our first object should be to discover and attack the primary cause of the evil, and endeavor to stamp it out at that stage.

It has always seemed to me a most wise provision among the Jews, that every male child among them had to be taught a trade or means of earning a livelihood. In Germany the same rule has been followed theoretically, to the immense advantage of the individual citizen. If we were not so largely dependent upon the supply of labor from abroad, we could, no doubt, have continued the good old rule of New England, by which the man who had no profession, no trade, was regarded as a useless member of society, and became a sort of pariah among his people. Perhaps it would appear presumptuous to advocate industrial schools as a specific against pauperism; but it is by them alone that the advantages of special training, in many branches of useful work, can be gained. At any rate this remedy attacks the root of the evil, and supplies the fulcrum on which the lever can act to move the dead weight of pauperism.

But we in this State have also, in considering this question, to deal with another feature which is confined chiefly to the neighborhood of New York. The effect of the vast emigration of recent

years, which has quadrupled the numbers of this nation, has interfered with the application of any laws on the subject of enforced industrial training. Thousands of emigrants land on our shores utterly ignorant of the simplest forms of mechanical labor,—the men unfit for any higher calling than porter or common laborer; the women unable to read, write, or sew, and entirely unskilled in household work. Thousands of children are still brought up in our midst without the smallest attempt at industrial teaching, and are left to their own fancies to devise the means of gaining a living,—honest or otherwise,—unless they should be fortunate (?) enough to fall under the moral influence of charitable societies or voluntary effort.

This is the cause of direct and indirect injury to our people, and creates additional difficulty in dealing with the effects of so sudden an increase of population. In fact, we are not, and never have been, prepared to meet it. Many of the most industrious and thrifty emigrants have their homes and employments ready for them farther inland. Those who are otherwise are tempted by friends or accidental circumstances to remain in the cities, where they too often swell the ranks of the unemployed. In connection with these, I have been constantly struck by the truth of an observation made by an expert in such matters, that when a family, however poor, had remained in a town a twelvemonth, they could hardly ever be persuaded to leave it.

“All habits gather by unseen degrees:
As brooks make rivers, rivers run to seas.”

It is in dealing with this class of people that so-called charity is apt to make its greatest mistakes. It will carry on a helpless family for months, with the hope that something or other may happen to better it. There is but one known result of such interference with the laws of Providence,—the degradation of the individual, the injury of the republic. It is here that the indulgence of sentiment does the most harm, whilst well-directed efforts in the way of bringing the benefits of training and knowledge patiently to bear are alone able to afford permanent relief. How far any system of coercion could be introduced with success in such cases, it is impossible to say; but where children are concerned, where the hopes and happiness of future generations depend upon the influence exerted in childhood, there is a strong case made out for positive interference on the part of the State. Such action

would be not only wise and beneficent, it would be provident and economical.

An additional obstacle to the teaching of industrial trades arises from the unfortunate misunderstanding between capital and labor, culminating in trades-unions and working-men's leagues. But, without entering upon this part of our social economy, industrial or technical training is, in my opinion, the first principle which affords a check to the spread of pauperism.

It is often said that the old methods of dealing with pauperism have broken down. Certainly it is on the increase; and this increase, in the average of years, has become normal and gradual. There are, indeed, agricultural townships in this State where it as yet scarcely exists. But in all districts, city and country, fresh efforts must be made, and in new directions, in order to offer effectual resistance to it. What, for instance, have the churches been able to do? What has individual charity done? What can indiscriminate, unorganized, unsystematic charitable efforts avail against this insidious evil? As a rule, they have too often formed or fostered habits of dependence and shiftlessness. Poverty, instead of teaching thrift and providence, has been allowed to produce a carelessness as to the future and a condition of hand-to-mouth living which perpetuates itself for future generations. This state of things, it must be remembered, has accompanied an enormous development in the material wealth and prosperity of the whole State. It is something astonishing to refer to the last census, and study the figures which represent the number of hands employed, the capital invested, the wages paid, the products of manufactures. At the last census the employés amounted to 351,800, earning \$142,500,000 during the year; on farms, the amount of wages paid was \$34,500,000; and the total product of manufactures and farms amounted to the enormous sum of \$1,038,720,809! What an immense field of employment these figures represent in a State, the total population of which amounted to 4,387,404! These statistics might be indefinitely extended, and are only given to show what an *el dorado* lies close at hand for the employment of our surplus laborers, if only adequate industrial training could be enforced. Indeed, one might almost think that the bonus held out by figures like these would be sufficient to induce all persons able to work to do their utmost to win some prize in the lottery of life. But to those who are striving and toiling to make their way, how hard and strange it must seem that they should be handicapped by the

incubus of having to support their indolent neighbors, who, while health remains, have the same opportunities and advantages as themselves!

In my opinion, little will be done in our State towards diminishing the number of paupers until their condition is made not only thoroughly contemptible, but, as far as possible, punishable. With regard to those who have sunk beyond the sense of shame, probably nothing but coercion will avail. There are always people who prefer to live at the expense of others, without doing any thing themselves. If their unfortunate example were confined to themselves, and died with their persons, there would be little to be said about it; but, unhappily, the effect is contagious. Their children, if there are any, are sure to be saturated with the same readiness to be dependent upon others: they inherit the same inaptitude for work,—the same unwillingness to help themselves. The tendency to avoid exertion enlarges its circle among those who temporarily or accidentally are deprived of regular work. And so, unless a brand of contempt and shame can be placed upon those who offend against Nature's first law of self-support, and unless the children of such persons can be taken from their unworthy guardianship and trained in very different ways, our Western feelings of independence and thrift will be too apt to degenerate and sink to the level of the degraded Asiatic nations. The honest poor man will always command the sympathy, and claim the support, of those more fortunate than himself; but the pauper who has the ability, and refuses the opportunity, to support himself and his family, who has lost his manhood and his independence, is a dangerous element in society, and must be dealt with accordingly. It is our duty to protect ourselves while there is time.

CLOSING SESSION OF THE CONFERENCE.

ON Thursday, June 12, after the reading of the Reports and Papers (except those of Mr. Pellew and Dr. Reynolds) was concluded, the Governor of Illinois, Hon. Shelby M. Cullom, was introduced, and spoke as follows:—

GOVERNOR CULLOM'S ADDRESS.

MR. PRESIDENT, LADIES, AND GENTLEMEN.—I owe you an apology for not being present, and discharging my duty to this Conference, as I had promised. When I left the State, I had no doubt that I could return in time; but the business which took me to Washington required more time to arrange than I anticipated, and I was compelled to remain two days longer, or return at once, which I did not like to do in this warm weather. It would have given me great pleasure to meet you in the opening of your session, and welcome you to this beautiful metropolitan city, not merely with a hospitable purpose (though I feel sure you have received satisfactory evidence that such exists), but also because the thoughtful people of this city and the State are interested in your deliberations. You have been here conferring together as to the best plan or system of caring for those unfortunates who are found in all communities and States, to prevent the increase of insanity, and other conditions of disease, helplessness, and pauperism, and the best modes of preventing and punishing crime, and the reformation of criminals. Your sessions are denominated Conferences of Charities. Most of you are engaged in a life work, where the scope of your duties extends to and embraces the very limits of the purposes of civil government. You have come together, fresh from your respective fields of labor, filled with philanthropic aims, earnest in your great work, and have compared results, and have doubtless discussed the questions before you from a stand-point of experience, observation, and science. Your subjects are many, but all akin, and are of the greatest moment to goverment and the human race.

In addition to the superintendents and others having charge of our State Charities, many of whom have met with you before, there is a growing number of private citizens who give earnest consideration to the questions which you discuss. In this comparatively young State, the most serious problems of State policy are connected with the construction of our penal and charitable institutions. As we grow in wealth and population, misfortune and crime seem to increase in even a greater ratio; and we have not only to maintain the institutions of charity and correction which we have already provided, but the necessity constantly presses upon us to increase their number, and enlarge the usefulness of those we have. As a State, Illinois claims to stand in

the very front rank of civilized communities in respect to the enforcement of law, the punishment of crime, and the care of the diseased and unfortunate. But I have long thought, and am more strongly impressed with the idea since I have been personally connected with the administration of our public institutions, that we have hardly made a beginning in the direction of the reform of criminals and the prevention of crime.

We punish crime, and by its punishment gain much for the peace and security of society in the deterrent influence of punishment; but too large a percentage of those discharged from our penal institutions go directly back to vicious associations and criminal practices. Too many convicts are serving a second and third term in our penitentiaries to warrant the claim that they are, to all, places of penitence and reform. Their discipline is good; the inmates are kept at healthful occupations; they are liberally supplied with books and other facilities for improvement. Yet much remains to be done; and your organization is one through whose aid we hope to reach a solution of this question: How can a State which is rapidly growing in wealth and population and intelligence check the growth of crime? What treatment shall we employ to keep down the criminal class, which comes from so large a proportion of our convicts, especially in our larger cities? What can best be done to prevent crime, and what is the best plan for the punishment and reformation of criminals? Your work is a labor of love and pity for the unfortunate. Your reward is a consciousness that you have, to some extent, restrained crime, reformed the vicious, and dispelled the clouds which gather upon the human intellect, and dethrone reason. Your efforts to do what your hearts, directed by superior knowledge of your special work, tell you is your duty, are as great and as profitable to the public as are the efforts of any class working in the interest of society.

The special classes for whose good you labor, and in whose behalf you appeal to the State, are not at your back with powerful voice controlling the agencies of party politics and the public press, if their cries for help are not heard and answered. In a popular government, and especially in a State having such an organic law as we have in Illinois, there are imperative reasons why the public should be thoroughly informed about all the charitable institutions of the State. Their maintenance and support absorb a very considerable portion of all moneys raised by taxation for State purposes, and they are the first object of attack by the

false economist, who seeks to make political capital at the expense of the unfortunate classes,—the insane, the mute, the blind, the feeble-minded,—for the amelioration of whose condition you labor. Those of you who are connected with State institutions, and who have to give an account of your stewardship to the public, find a very important part of your duties in presenting to the people—and especially to their legislative representatives—the condition, wants, and necessities of your institutions.

In this State we make no standing appropriations. Every General Assembly, composed largely of new material, has to address itself to the task of investigating all the charitable institutions of the State. Many men of very wide and general information come to the Legislature, there to learn for the first time in their lives the extent and variety of the charities which the State supports, as well as the extent and variety of the causes of that disease and misfortune which make such charities necessary. I am glad to have this opportunity to say,—what perhaps has only a local application,—that there has been a great deal of unreflecting and unkind criticism about the time consumed, and consequent delay of legislation, because of the necessity that members of our Legislature should thoroughly investigate these institutions, in order to act wisely and advisedly. This criticism has been made of the legislators in their visits to the public institutions, and of the trustees and superintendents of the institutions in their visits to the Legislature. Under a system like ours, which properly guards so zealously the people's money, I do not know how we can get along without the intercommunication between the Legislature and the public charitable and penal institutions. The duty of caring for the unfortunate classes of the State is no longer questioned. The dictates of humanity and the interests of society alike demand it. However heavy the burden may become, it is universally recognized as a proper one, and nowhere is it more cheerfully assumed than it is in this State.

We look to you for suggestions how to perform this great duty. And we look to you for such economic methods as will give us the fullest returns for the money which we are ready to expend. When you have told us how best to care for the insane and for the criminal, those afflicted with mental and moral disease, you have only begun your work. When we call a physician, we ask for something more than a palliative treatment. We want to eradicate the disease itself; a permanent cure; and so, in the

State, we shall not reach the highest civilization — that perfect development of which I believe the human race is susceptible — until we can discover and remove the causes of disease and crime. The State must, in self-protection, punish the evil-doer, irresponsible as he may be from want of education or opportunities for self-support and improvement, the same as nature punishes the ignorant violation of her laws, or as surely as she punishes the wilful disregard of them.

You, ladies and gentlemen, who, with patient labor and scientific method, have made the subject of the care and management of the public charities one of the recognized learned professions, must take the lead in the work of the investigation and removal of the causes of misfortune and crime. In this investigation nothing which influences human society, nothing which affects human welfare, is foreign to your discussion. With a firm conviction in the possibilities of the human race for improvement and advancement, I believe your labors will have the reward of the grateful plaudits of an intelligent public, the thanks of the afflicted and those to whom they are near and dear, with the consciousness that you have done something that will entitle you to be enrolled in the book of gold among the names of those that love their fellow-men.

WOMEN ON BOARDS OF CHARITY.

In the debate on Mrs. Lowell's paper, opportunity was given for Mrs. Arthur Smith of Chicago, in behalf of the Illinois Social Science Association, and of the Industrial School for Girls at Evanston, to urge the appointment of women on Boards of Public Charity. She alluded to the fact that Mrs. Lowell, whose paper had been read, is a member of the New-York State Board of Charities, having been appointed by Gov. Tilden in 1876. The Illinois Social Science Association, like the parent Association which first called together the Conference, was seeking the best means to prevent pauperism and crime, and for this purpose desired to have women represented on the State Boards of Charities.

Mrs. Roberts, secretary of the Indiana Social Science Association, spoke of the efforts of her Association to secure the appointment, in Indiana, of a State Board of Charities, composed of four men and two women; but the effort was not yet successful.

Mrs. Lynde of Wisconsin, who was for five years on the Board of Charities of her State, made a statement of the circumstances

leading to her appointment on the Board. She indorsed Mrs. Lowell's paper, and said that the jails and poorhouses were the great nurseries of vice and crime. The number of illegitimate children that came from the poorhouses was very large; and only women could detect many of the defects in poorhouse management. It was essential that there should be women on State Boards, and as inspectors of prisons, jails, and police-stations.

Mr. A. D. Hendrickson of Wisconsin said that his State had been the first to place a woman on its Board of Charities; and Mrs. Lynde was that woman.¹ He favored the placing of women upon State Charity Boards, because their influence reached much farther than that of men, especially in the domestic departments. Mr. Hendrickson related that he was superintendent of the Reform School at Waukesha while Mrs. Lynde was on the Board of Charities, and had ample means of observing the extent of women's influence in such affairs. Referring to the decrease in the inmates of Wisconsin prisons and reform schools, he explained it by pointing out the increased number of industrial schools. The reformatory institutions decreased crime, and these institutions could be conducted best by women.

No action was taken on the request of Mrs. Smith and Mrs. Roberts.

VOTES AND ASSIGNMENTS.

The Report of the Committee to fix the place of the next Conference was read, recommending *Cleveland*, O., and authorizing the President and Secretaries to fix the time. The Report was adopted, and it was so voted.

On motion of Dr. Hoyt of New York (Mr. Kanouse of Wisconsin in the chair), it was unanimously *Resolved*, "That the thanks of the Conference are hereby tendered to Mr. F. B. Sanborn, of the American Social Science Association, for his untiring and disinterested labors in its organization, and the arrangement of its proceedings."

It was voted, That three persons be appointed as a Publishing Committee, with full powers for editing the Proceedings of this Conference, and that the cost be assessed upon the Boards of State Charities and other subscribers, in proportion to the number

¹ It is proper to mention that Mrs. Lynde was present at the first Conference of Charities in New-York City in May, 1874, as a member of the State Board of Wisconsin, and took part in its organization and debates.

of copies taken. The committee to consist of Rev. F. H. Wines, Rev. A. G. Byers, and Mr. F. B. Sanborn.

The following Resolutions, offered by Rev. A. G. Byers of Ohio, were adopted :—

1. *Resolved*, That the President of this Conference be requested to present at the opening of the next year's session an Address upon the work of the year, including Legislation and Administration.

2. *Resolved*, That the Committee on Legislation and Administration be changed to a Committee on Criminal Law and its Administration.

On motion of Rev. F. H. Wines, the following Resolution was adopted :—

That the several Standing Committees be requested to formulate propositions, as far as possible, respecting the subjects considered by them, to be submitted to the next Conference for its action.

On motion, the employment of a stenographer in 1880, and the matter of printing in 1879, were ordered to be brought before the several Boards of Charities, who are to report at an early date to President Brinkerhoff.

Mr. Letchworth of New York offered the following Resolution, which was adopted :—

Whereas, the Conference of Charities for the United States is about to conclude its sessions for the year 1879 ; therefore,—

Resolved, That this Conference desires hereby to express its cordial thanks to the proprietors of the Grand Pacific Hotel for the hall so liberally placed at their disposal; to the citizens of Chicago for numerous favors and generous hospitality; to the Chicago press for daily reports of its proceedings; to the railroads which have granted concessions to delegates; to the Illinois State Board of Charities; and especially to the efficient Secretary of that Board, Rev. Fred. H. Wines, to whose thoughtfulness and kindness the success of the occasion has been largely due.

CLOSING COURTESIES.

An invitation to visit the Old People's Home, at its annual reception, Thursday evening, was extended to the Conference by the President, Mrs. S. Gibbs; also to visit the Industrial School for Girls at Evanston, and the St. Xavier Benevolent Institution. Before adjourning to attend the Social Science reception, Mr. F. H. Wines, being called upon by the Chairman, said he had never known a Conference so full of good will, brotherly kindness, and every pleasant feature, as had been the present one. The

Conference had been well treated in Chicago, and he hoped Cleveland would do as well. He was never more surprised in his life than to hear the expression of the Conference in selecting him to edit its records and papers. He cordially thanked the members for the mark of respect, but was very doubtful whether he could accept the trust.

President Brinkerhoff thanked the Association for the unvarying courtesy extended to him, and spoke of the separation of the Conference from the Social Science Association, its parent. He referred to the growth of the two organizations, and their increasing power as a lever in the world's government; and said it was a noble thought that there were men and women who would, without remuneration, render such services to humanity. He hoped the next Conference would include a representation from the entire country. The Conference then adjourned *sine die*.

A reception to the members was given the same evening at the Lydian Art Gallery by the ladies of the Illinois Social Science Association. The reception was under the charge of a committee of arrangements, consisting of Mr. and Mrs. W. S. Harbert, Gen. and Mrs. Beveridge, Dr. and Mrs. Wardner, and Professor and Mrs. Samuel Willard. There were present Gov. Cullom, Gen. Brinkerhoff, Mr. Elmore, Mr. Letchworth, Mr. Watkins of Iowa, Mr. Wines, Mr. Lord, Judge Robinson of Illinois, Professor Willard, Mrs. N. S. Roberts, secretary of the Indiana Social Science Association, Mrs. Helen Gouger, and many other ladies and gentlemen.

After music, the President of the Illinois Association, Mrs. E. B. Harbert of Evanston, made an address of welcome, to which Gov. Cullom, Gen. Brinkerhoff, and other members of the Conference, responded. The evening was agreeably spent, and the Conference of 1879 was dissolved, to re-assemble in Cleveland, Tuesday, June 1, 1880.

